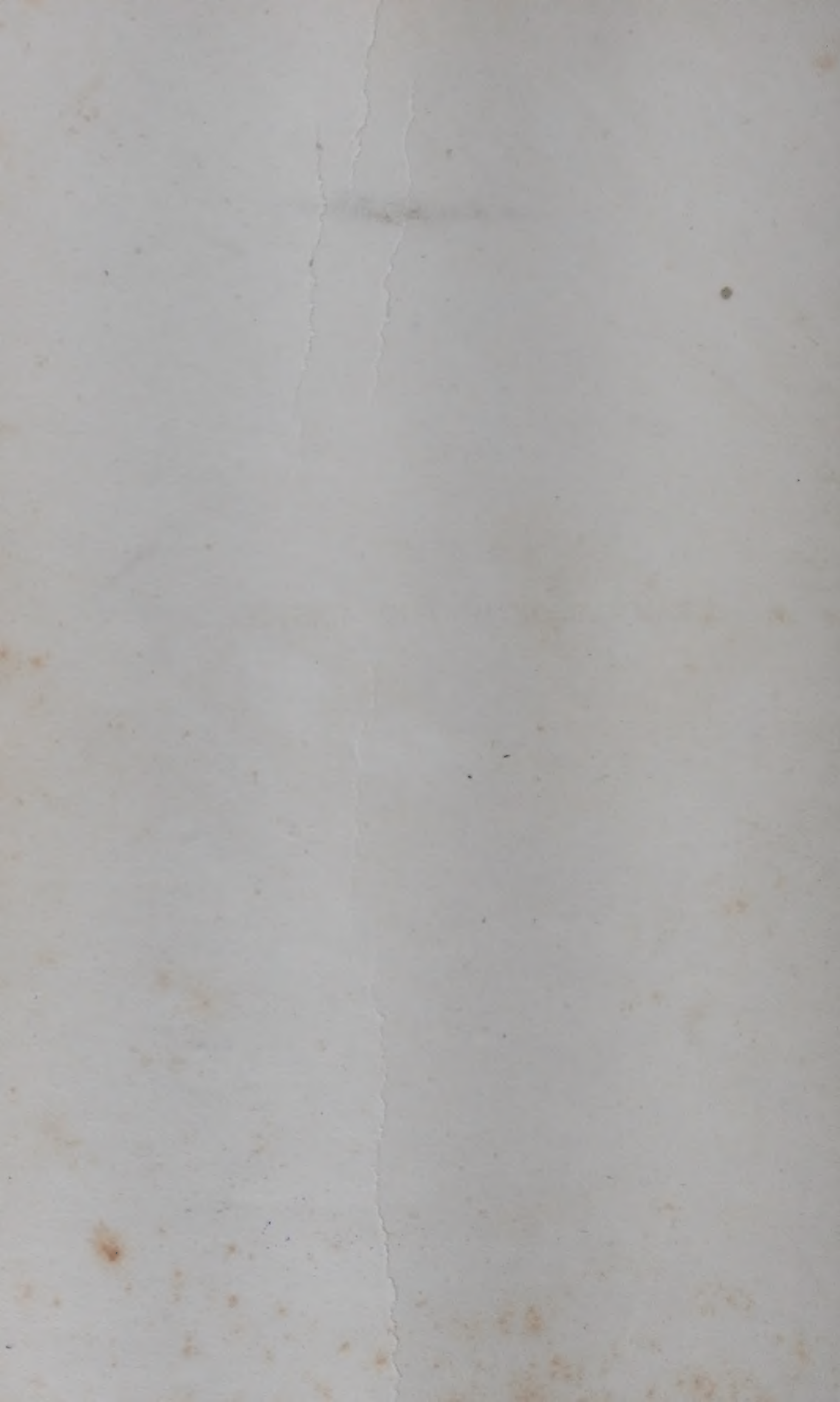


A SIMPLE GRAMMAR
OF
MODERN ENGLISH



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A SIMPLE
GRAMMAR OF MODERN ENGLISH

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PREFACE

THE writer of this Simple Grammar has for several years been responsible to a considerable extent for the elementary instruction of some ten thousand pupils, the great majority of whom never spoke a word of English before they went to school, and the great majority of whose teachers also speak English only as an acquired language. In such circumstances the successful teaching of English Grammar presents peculiar difficulties. In striving to overcome these difficulties, the fact has forcibly impressed itself upon his mind that there are other difficulties, not less serious, which arise from the way in which the subject is presented in most of the text-books available. The difficulties referred to are nearly all due to the attempt to fit the facts of a language which is almost purely analytic into the forms suitable for highly inflectional languages like Latin and Greek.

His object in writing a new Grammar is to endeavour to remove these difficulties and to present the facts of the language in a simple and natural way. Another object is so to treat grammar as to make it a real help to composition. The classification of the different kinds of nouns, adjectives, and verbs is accordingly determined by their use in sentences. Thus, names of materials are distinguished from common nouns, amongst which they are usually included, because in their syntax they are utterly unlike common nouns. Adjectives of quantity are distinguished from adjectives of number because the two kinds are used with different kinds of nouns as well as with different numbers of nouns. Verbs are divided into three kinds, those followed by an object, those followed by a complement, and those followed by neither, instead of the two kinds usually given. The verb has been greatly simplified by separating entirely those forms which arise from inflection from those combinations of verbal forms which arise from the use of auxiliaries. Thus there are but two tenses, and 'shall' and 'will' are auxiliaries of mood, as 'should' and 'would' always were. It is with the view of making grammar a

help in composition also that the use of words is treated in close connection with the forms of words.

The treatment of the subject is (a) analytic, since English is an analytic far more than an inflectional language; (b) inductive, since something found is much more interesting than something merely heard. From select examples the pupil proceeds to statements in regard to what is common to them, and then to definitions arising out of these statements. Results are printed in heavy type so as to make a greater impression on the eye, and through the eye on the memory. The terminology is as far as possible what is usual, but where it could be simplified, as for example in using 'kinds of words' for 'parts of speech,' this has been done. In the parsing models brevity combined with clearness is aimed at. The form of analysis adopted is equally suitable for oral and for written work, and much oral practice is of great value in studying this part of the subject. Tabular analysis is avoided. The pupil is far too apt to try to fill up the pigeon-holes which a tabular form presents without regard to whether there is anything to put into them or not. Here he names only what he finds in the sentence, and he finds it before he names it.

The book covers the range of work prescribed in most of the Codes for the Standards from III. to VII. Minute detail is avoided, and archaic forms are very cursorily referred to. The lessons dealing with the uses of the kinds and forms of words may be omitted at the first reading of any larger section of the book.

It is hoped that this simplified treatment of the language will be of real service to pupils and private students who are acquiring a knowledge of English in countries like Canada, South Africa, India, and Japan. But its suitability for these does not make it less suitable for those who speak English as their native tongue, for the more simply the facts of any subject are presented, the more readily and with the greater pleasure are they learned, and the more likely are they to remain as a permanent possession.

NOTE TO THE SECOND EDITION

In this edition a more concise form of analysis for complex sentences has been introduced. Many changes have also been made, and a few errors have been corrected.

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A SIMPLE GRAMMAR OF MODERN ENGLISH

PARTS OF A SENTENCE

I.—SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

Look at the following statements :

Autumn has come.
The wheat is ripe.
The reapers are cutting the corn.

Each of these statements is a sentence.

A sentence is a group of words which make sense.

If we look at the first sentence, 'Autumn has come,' we notice that there is something *spoken about*—'Autumn,' and something *said*—'is come.'

In the same way in the second sentence, 'The wheat' is what is spoken about, and 'is ripe' is what is said.

In the third sentence what is spoken about is 'The reapers,' and what is said is 'are cutting the corn.'

In Grammar, what is spoken about is called the Subject, and what is said is called the Predicate.

In the first sentence the subject is 'autumn,' because 'autumn' is what is spoken about, and 'has come' is the predicate, because that is what is said.

In the same way in the second sentence, the subject is 'the wheat,' and the predicate is 'is ripe.'

In the third sentence 'the reapers' is the subject, and 'are cutting the corn' is the predicate.

We can break up these sentences in the following way so as to show their parts :

Autumn	<i>subject</i>
has come	<i>predicate.</i>
The wheat	<i>subject</i>
is ripe.	<i>predicate.</i>
The reapers	<i>subject</i>
are cutting the corn.	<i>predicate.</i>

When we break up a sentence in this way into its parts, we are said to analyse it.

To analyse a sentence is to break it up into its parts.

EXERCISES

1. *In the following sentences mention the Subject, that is, what is spoken about :*

Spring is come. The days are warmer. The farmer sows his seed. The rain begins. The ducks are glad. The gardener digs the ground. The birds are on the trees. The boys are in the woods. Jim is a kind master. We are here. The sun is setting. The girls are sewing. Has the maid swept the floor? Where is Jack? What is the blacksmith making?

2. *In the following sentences mention the Predicate, that is, what is said :*

Summer has arrived. The days are long. The weather is warm. The fields are green. Robert is spinning his top. The birds are singing. Everything is gay. The orchard is full of blossom. Nellie had two little kittens. The owl is called the bird of night. Frank was in the woods. He caught a squirrel. Where are the men? What are they doing?

3. *Analyse the following sentences, that is, break them up into Subject and Predicate :*

The sun is up. The sky is blue. The clouds bring rain. Ducks swim. The garden is full of trees. Ann had a pet goat. The miller buys the corn. The seeds were planted. The wind blows. The boys stood still. The pen is in the box. The girls are at school. Where is Tom? Has the tree fallen? Have the guests arrived? What does the man want? They must not come. Have you finished the work?

4. *Supply predicates to the following subjects :*

The wind . . . The sun . . . The grass . . . The river . . . John . . . Annie . . . Robert and Charlie . . . The teacher . . . The boys . . . The girls . . . The holidays . . . Our lessons . . . My book . . . My slate . . . The flowers . . . Our dog . . .

5. *Supply subjects to the following predicates :*

. . . neighed. . . . lowed. . . . curtsied. . . . galloped. . . . deepens. . . . repose. . . . remember him. . . . has seen him . . . without a keeper stray. . . . was in mid-furrow stayed. . . . ran off. . . . sings sweetly. . . . has done his work well. . . . do not care. Do . . . know your lessons? Does . . . remember her home? Will . . . ever return? What can want?

KINDS OF WORDS

THE NOUN

Look at the following sentences :

John speaks.
The lark sings.
The sun is in the sky.

We can divide these sentences into Subject and Predicate as in the last lesson, thus :

John	<i>subject</i>
speaks.	<i>predicate.</i>
The lark	<i>subject</i>
sings.	<i>predicate.</i>
The sun	<i>subject</i>
is in the sky.	<i>predicate.</i>

But instead of looking at the parts into which the sentences are divided, we can look at the different words of which they are made up, and try to arrange these words according to their kinds.

We notice that some of the words are **Names**.

In the first sentence the word ' John ' is the name of a person.

In the second sentence ' lark ' is the name of a kind of bird.

In the third sentence ' sun ' is the name of a thing, and ' sky ' is the name of the place where it is.

Words which are used as names are called **Nouns**.

A Noun is a word which is used as the name of anything.

The words printed in heavy type in the following sentence are all **Nouns** :

The flowers smell sweet. The bright sun shines. The gardener digs the ground. Knives and scissors are made of steel. Bread is made of flour. Tom has learned his lesson. Lily has seen her mistake. Do deeds of kindness.

EXERCISES

1. *Pick out the nouns in the following sentences, and say how you know that they are nouns :*

The horse is in the field. The men cut down the trees. Where are the children ? Mice eat cheese. Ice is frozen water. Fred is a good boy. Tom's kite flew high. We saw shells on the shore. The rose is a sweet flower. Rabbits have short tails. On the grass under the trees in the park there are six little lambs at play.

2. *Write out ten words which are nouns, that is, names.*

3. *Analyse the sentences in Exercise 1, that is, divide them into Subject and Predicate.*

KINDS OF WORDS

THE VERB

Look at these sentences again :

John speaks.

The lark sings.

The sun is in the sky.

The word 'John,' as we have already seen, is used as the name of some one. It is therefore a Noun. In the same way, 'lark' and 'sun' and 'sky,' which are all used as names of things, are Nouns.

But we use the word 'speaks' in the first sentence, not as the name of anything, but to say something about John.

In the second sentence we use the word 'sings' to say something about the lark.

And in the third sentence we use the word 'is' to say something about the sun.

A word which is used in saying something about a thing is called a Verb.

A Verb is a word which is used in saying something about anything.

A Verb either tells what a thing does (or did), or it says that a thing is (or was) something.

In the sentence 'The dog barks,' the verb 'barks' tells us what the dog does.

In the sentence 'The dog is black,' the verb 'is' is the word by means of which we say that the dog is something.

In the following sentences the words printed in heavy type are Verbs, for they are all words used in saying something :

Rain **comes** from the clouds. The flowers **smell** sweet. The bright sun **shines**. The sun **is** bright. The days **are** long. Summer **has** come. The thief **was** sent to prison. They **all** **seemed** happy. The horse **has** been sold. Come here. Where **is** John ? Did Tom **see** him ?

In some of these sentences two or even three verbs are used in saying something about a thing. This is very often the case in English.

We must distinguish between the word which says—the Verb, and what is said—the Predicate. In the sentence 'John speaks,' the Verb and the Predicate are the same—'speaks'; but in the sentence 'The grass is green,' 'is' is the word which says, or the Verb, while 'is green' is what is said, or the Predicate.

EXERCISES

1. *Pick out the verbs in the following sentences, and tell how you know that each is a verb*

The sun **sets** in the west. The worm **crawls** on the ground. The hunter **shot** a lion. George **has** a fine horse. The door **turns** on its hinges. The owl **watches** for mice. Go **away**. Row **for** your lives. The poor men **were** saved. The apples **are** ripe. The grass **is** green. My dog **was** stolen. His face **was** pale. Where **are** the boys ? What **have** you done ? The men **have** been reaping. The boys **are** fond of play. Jane **helped** her aunt. Be kind to your pets. We **can** gather the cherries. When **will** you come ? Men **must** work.

2. *Write verbs to the following words, so as to say something about each word.*

I. He. She. We. You. They. The horse. The horses. The ox. The cows. The eagle. The blackbird. The lambs. The fish. The day. The night. The man. The woman. The boy. The boys. The girl. The girls. The teacher. The schoolroom. The grass. The trees. The fruit. The sea. Water. Gold. Silver. Coal. Iron. Clay.

3. *Select twelve verbs for yourself, and write sentences containing them.*

4. *Analyse the sentences in Exercise 1 above, that is, divide them into Subject and Predicate.*

KINDS OF WORDS

THE ADJECTIVE

Look at the following sentences :

Good cats catch mice.

I saw a poor little boy.

The merry children love the warm sunshine.

In these sentences we at once recognise some words as nouns, such as 'cats,' 'mice,' 'boy,' 'children,' and 'sunshine.'

Some of the words are verbs, such as 'catch,' 'saw,' and 'love.'

Let us look at some of the other words.

The word 'good' in the first sentence goes with the noun 'cats.' It *describes* the cats, that is, it shows us *what kind* of cats they were.

In the second sentence the words 'poor' and 'little' go with the noun 'boy.' These words describe the boy.

In the same way in the third sentence, the word 'merry' describes the children, and the word 'warm' describes the sunshine.

A word which describes a thing is called an Adjective.

An Adjective is a word which is used with a noun to describe a thing.

Adjectives may describe things in different ways. They may show us *what kind* of things are spoken of, as in the sentence : 'Good cats catch mice' ; or *how many* things are spoken of, as in the sentence : '**Two** boys have **twenty** fingers' ; or they may show us *what* thing is spoken of, as in the sentence : '**This** boy loves play.'

The word 'a' in the sentence 'I saw a poor little boy' is an adjective, as it means 'one.' The word 'the' in the third sentence is also an adjective, since it points out *what* children and *what* sunshine are meant.

In the following sentences the words printed in heavy type are Adjectives :

Look at that poor old man. Ben has a pretty book. The lion has a large head, bright eyes, and a flowing mane. Seven fat sheep lie under yonder green tree. The sun is bright. Those boys are asleep. Her hair was thick with many a curl.

EXERCISES

1. *Pick out the adjectives in the following sentences, and tell what nouns they go with or refer to :*

Rover is a nice dog. He has a hairy coat, and a white ring round his thick neck. A big log is blazing in the open fireplace. The little girl saw a great ugly snake. Fred had six pretty pigeons. The next morning he gave them some bread. Little birds sleep sweetly in their soft round nests. The grass is green. This ox is strong. These boys seem happy. How many books have you? I have ten. That naughty boy has wasted the whole morning.

2. *Put adjectives before the following nouns :*

... children. ... trees. ... cattle. ... town. ... streets.
 ... shops. ... night. ... clouds. ... rain. ... sky. ...
 pencil. ... school. ... rose. ... dogs. ... sheep. ... birds.
 ... books. ... men. ... princess.

3. *Put nouns after the following adjectives :*

A large ... A small ... Pleasant ... A brave ... A wise
 ... Wise ... Good ... Many ... Much ... This ...
 These ... Which ... The other ... The first ... These old ...
 This new ... Some ...

USE OF ADJECTIVES

as Attributes and Predicates

Look at the following sentences :

The merry mice stay in their holes.

The mice are merry.

In the first sentence the adjective 'merry' is put before the noun 'mice' to describe the mice.

In the second sentence the adjective 'merry' is put after the noun 'mice' to tell us something about the mice.

An adjective which is put before a noun to describe a thing is said to be used as an **Attribute** to the noun. In the sentence 'The merry mice stay in their holes,' the adjective 'merry' is used as an attribute to the noun 'mice.'

An adjective which is put after a noun to tell us something in regard to a thing is said to be used as a **Predicate** to the noun. In the sentence 'The mice are merry,' the adjective 'merry' is used as a predicate to the noun 'mice.'

Look also at the following sentences :

Blessed are the merciful.

Here rich and poor are met together.

In the first sentence the words 'the merciful' mean 'merciful people' or 'those people who are merciful.' In the same way in the second sentence the words 'rich' and 'poor' mean 'rich people' and 'poor people.' In the sentences as they are given the names of the persons who are described by the adjectives are not expressed, but they are understood.

The noun which an adjective describes is often not expressed, as : Many are called but few chosen.

One noun is often used as an attribute to another, as : I met a little cottage girl. Under a spreading chestnut tree the village smithy stands. A land breeze shook the shrouds.

EXERCISE

In the following sentences pick out the adjectives, and tell which are used as attributes, and which as predicates, and which are used to describe a thing not expressed :

This man is old. The old man died. A new house has been built. This house is quite new. Look at the green grass. The grass becomes green. The girl grows tall. She seems happy. Many hands make light work. This book is pretty. The boy has many pretty books. The leaves turn yellow. All now took their departure ; some went on horseback ; many in carriages ; others on foot. Several of us were there. Twenty of them returned. Blessed are the meek. The poor are always with us. One may have an ambition, at which a second would scoff ; a third may be inspired by revenge ; a fourth by duty.

KINDS OF WORDS

THE ADVERB

Look at the following sentences :

The little birds sing sweetly.
The boy will return soon.
That man lives here.
He returned therefore.

In the first sentence the word 'birds' is the name of something : it is therefore a noun. The word 'little' describes the birds : it is therefore an adjective. The word 'sings' says something about the birds, and is therefore a verb. The remaining word, 'sweetly,' tells us **how** the birds sing.

In the second sentence the word 'soon' tells us **when** the boy will return.

In the third sentence the word 'here' tells us **where** the man lives.

In the last sentence the word 'therefore' indicates **why** the man returned.

Words which add to the meaning of a verb by telling us when, where, how, or why a thing is done or takes place are called **Adverbs**.

An Adverb is a word which is used with a verb to add something to its meaning.

There are also some adverbs which go with adjectives and with other adverbs. We shall consider these when we come to study the different kinds of adverbs.

In the following sentences the words in heavy type are **Adverbs** :

The prince went **away** yesterday. The dog lay **outside**. Come with me **quickly**. The waves crept **slowly** up the beach. You could **easily** have done it. The dog struggled **bravely**. There were **formerly** many lions in South Africa. The people gathered **closer** together. He **almost** fainted. **Swiftly** glides the **bonny** boat.

EXERCISES

1. *Point out the adverbs in the following sentences, and tell the verb with which each goes :*

Come back. Go away. The boy learns his lessons **aloud**. The horse runs **fast**. He **came** immediately. They turned round. The door was **slowly** opened. The door was **fast** shut. The animals were moving **restlessly** inside. Suddenly **we** stopped. **We** sought them everywhere. **Tie** him up tightly. He will never return.

2. *In the above sentences, state what each adverb tells us about the action.*

3. *Supply adverbs to the verbs of the following sentences.*

Go . . . Come . . . He walks . . . He does it . . . He is not . . . frightened. We got . . . home. He sowed the seeds very . . . They live . . . He treated them . . . He went . . . He came . . . The army fought . . . The dog barked . . . She sang . . . The sun shines . . . I will . . . do it. How . . . did you go ?

4. *Select twelve adverbs of your own, and make sentences containing them.*

KINDS OF WORDS

THE PREPOSITION

Compare the following sentences :

He is here.

Come soon.

He runs quickly.

He is in the room.

Come after dinner.

He runs with speed.

In the first sentence the word 'here' is an adverb. It goes with the verb 'is' to show **where** he is. But the words 'in the room' also go with the verb 'is' to show **where** he is. Now 'room' is a noun, for it is the name of a place, and 'the' is an adjective. The word 'in' which is put before 'the room' is a word which *helps* these words to show where he is.

In the next pair of sentences 'soon' is an adverb showing **when** we are to come, but the words 'after dinner' also express **when**. 'Dinner' is a noun, and 'after' is a word put before it to help it to express **when**.

In the third pair of sentences 'quickly' is an adverb expressing **how** he runs, but the words 'with speed' also express **how** he runs. These words are together equal to an adverb.

Compare also the following sentences :

He was a worthy man.

He was a man of worth.

In the first sentence 'worthy' is an adjective, as it is used with 'man' and describes the man. In the second sentence the words 'of worth' have the same meaning. The word 'worth' is a noun, being the name of something, and the word 'of' which is put before it helps it to describe the noun 'man.'

A word which is put before a noun in this way is called a **Preposition**. (The word 'preposition' means 'put before'.)

A Preposition is a word which is put before a noun, and which helps it to do the work of an adjective or an adverb.

When a preposition and a noun do the work of an adjective, they form an **Adjectival Phrase**. When a preposition and a noun do the work of an adverb, they form an **Adverbial Phrase**. A **phrase** is a group of connected words which does not contain a predicate.

In the following sentences the words printed in heavy type are **Prepositions** :

He lives **in** London. They come **from** Plymouth. We started **before** daybreak. The carpenter works **with** a saw. He is tired **of** play. Give it **to** John. A rod **of** gold. The roof **of** the house has fallen in. He is a man **of** resource. Follow the path **of** honour. They went **across** the fields. The girls ran **round** the house. They went **towards** the gate. During the storm we took shelter **under** a tree.

EXERCISE

Point out the prepositions in the following sentences, and the nouns before which they are put. Say in each case whether the preposition and noun are equal to an adjective or to an adverb :

It was near noon when we set out on a dark day with clouds. He was a man of courage and probity. I put the water to my lips. The lake had scarce a wave upon its surface. We went along the waterside, then up the hill, across the moor, through the hazel copse and down the slope beyond it. Beneath the loveliest dream there lies a fear. We saw a town of no great size. We passed beneath a tree with wide-spreading branches. He led me into and along the dark tunnel through the moonlight. From the wide meadow we came into a field of corn. The owl lived in a hole in a hollow tree. I saw no one but him. During the whole year he studied hard. There is a pleasure in the pathless woods. There is a rapture on the lonely shore. Yonder is a man with a grievance. Over the daisies the moonlight is lying. I will do it, notwithstanding your objection. He questioned me about my relations. It is about eight o'clock. He is a man above suspicion. He did it against his will.

KINDS OF WORDS

THE PRONOUN

Look at the following sentences :

I speak.
You listen.
John has come : he is wet.

In the first sentence the word 'I' is not a name, but it stands for 'my name.'

In the second sentence, in the same way, 'you' is not a name, but it stands for 'your name.'

In the third sentence 'John' is a name. In the second part

of the same sentence the word 'he' is not a name, but it stands for the name 'John.'

A word which is used for a name we call a **Pronoun**. The word Pronoun means 'for a noun' or 'for a name.'

A Pronoun is a word which is used instead of a noun.

We use pronouns in order to avoid using names and repeating names.

It would be possible to write in the following way :

Look at that poor old man. That poor old man sits under the tree. That poor old man's dog sits by that poor old man.

But this would be very clumsy. We therefore use pronouns and write :

Look at that poor old man. He sits under the tree. His dog sits by him.

In the following sentences the words printed in heavy type are all **Pronouns** :

Jane had a pet bird. She kept it in a cage. It was so tame that it would come and eat out of her hand. The bees are at work. They are gathering honey. Let us go and watch them near their hive. We have nine hives in our garden. Where is the boy that was here yesterday ? Whom do you mean ?

EXERCISES

1. *Point out the pronouns in the following sentences, and tell what each stands for :*

Two little birds built a nest in a tree. They made it soft and warm. The mother bird sat on the eggs to keep them warm, while her mate brought her food. The sick dog ate herbs and they made him better. Speak kindly to your friend. I should like to be a bee. It seems to have nothing to do. When are you coming to see us ? Your sister is here : she has been looking for you. It is grand to have a giant's power, but tyrannous to use it like a giant. They frolic it with ho ! ho ! ho !

They told me, Heraclitus, they told me you were dead,
They brought me bitter news to hear and bitter tears to shed.
I wept as I remembered how often you and I
Had tired the sun with talking and sent him down the sky.

2. *Write sentences of your own containing each of the following pronouns :*

He ; she ; it ; we ; you ; they ; I ; my ; our ; your ; himself ; ourselves ; their ; theirs ; them ; us ; her ; hers.

KINDS OF WORDS

THE CONJUNCTION

Look at the following sentences :

John sat and James stood.
The others left but he remained.
I know that he will come.
He is noble and brave.
They bought horses and sheep.

In the first sentence the word **and** joins the sentence 'John sat' to the sentence 'James stood.'

In the second sentence the word **but** joins the sentence 'the others left' to the sentence 'but he remained.'

In the third sentence the word **that** joins the clause 'I know' to the clause 'he will come.'

In the fourth sentence the word **and** joins the adjective 'noble' to the adjective 'brave.'

In the last sentence the word **and** joins the noun 'horses' to the noun 'sheep.'

All the words mentioned thus either join sentences together or they join similar parts of a sentence together. Such words are called **Conjunctions**. (Latin *con*, together, and *unctus*, joined.)

A **Conjunction** is a word which joins sentences, or the similar parts of a sentence, together, as: The miller played **and** the maid danced; Jack **and** Jill went up the hill; They came running **and** leaping; Go **or** stay; Be strong **and** wise; He has houses **and** lands.

EXAMPLES OF CONJUNCTIONS

The horses neighed **and** the oxen lowed. Slowly **and** sadly we laid him down. My father was a good **and** honest man. They were poor **but** honest. Though deep, yet clear. Go **and** do likewise. I know that you will come. I know **because** you told me. If he goes I shall stay. Unless you trust me, I cannot help you. Beware **lest** you fall. He left before we arrived.

EXERCISE

Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences and tell what they join :

Summer and winter he was there. You or I must go. We neither saw nor heard. He fought to win or die. Be wise as serpents, but harmless as doves. He was present, though unseen. He was there, for I saw him. He came, because he had to. He left soon after we arrived. Unless thou go, I cannot stay. Try if you can do it. Come ere it is too late. Run, lest you be overtaken. He said that he would return. Since the sides are equal the angles are equal. Tell us whether you wish to go or not. Wait till I send for you. He walked so fast that they could not overtake him. Both he and his brother were there.

KINDS OF WORDS

THE INTERJECTION

Look at the following sentences :

O Hubert ! spare mine eyes !

Ah ! my Lord Arthur, whither shall I go ?

Alas ! regardless of their doom, the little victims play.

The first word in each of these sentences does not express sense or meaning, but expresses feeling or emotion. It does not properly form a part of the sentence, but stands outside of it.

A word used merely to express feeling or emotion is called an Interjection, as : Oh ! not for death but glory, her smile would welcome him home.

The following are additional examples :

O Tiber ! father Tiber ! to whom the Romans pray !

Ho ! gunners, fire a loud salute : ho ! gallants, draw your blades.

What ! alive and so bold, O Earth !

Ha ! leapest thou forth as of old ?

How ! is not thy quick heart cold ?

Away ! we know that tears are vain !

Adieu ! adieu ! thy plaintive anthem fades.

Lo ! in the vale of years beneath, a grisly troop are seen !

But hush ! hark ! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell !

The word Interjection is derived from the Latin *inter*, between, and *factus*, thrown. It is a word thrown into the sentence but not properly forming a part of it.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

PARSING

The kinds of words of which language is made up are also called the **Parts of Speech**. 'Parts of Speech' means exactly the same as 'Kinds of Words.' The Parts of Speech are, as we have seen, the Noun and Verb; the Adjective and Adverb; the Pronoun, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

WORDS USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH

Many English words are used now as one part of speech, now as another: for instance, each of the following words is sometimes an adverb, sometimes a preposition, sometimes a conjunction, as in the examples given:

<i>Adverb.</i>	<i>Preposition.</i>	<i>Conjunction.</i>
He came after .	He came after us.	He came after we left.
I went before .	I went before him.	I went before he came.
I have but one dog.	I saw no one but him.	You went but he stayed.
He was sought for .	We sought for him.	It is true; for all say so.
He has left since .	He has left since noon.	He has left since you came.

We can never tell what part of speech a word is by its form; but we can always tell by the work it does in the sentence.

PARSING. FIRST STAGE

The exercise of telling the kinds of words, or parts of speech, in a sentence is called **Parsing**. The following examples will show how parsing may be done at the stage we have now reached:

Alas ! Robert suddenly found himself in great difficulty and danger.

Alas !	an interjection, because it merely expresses feeling.
Robert :	a noun, because it is the name of some one.
suddenly :	an adverb, because it tells <i>when</i> he found himself in difficulty and danger.
found :	a verb, because it says something about Robert.
himself :	a pronoun, because it stands for the noun 'Robert.'
in :	a preposition, because it is put before the noun 'difficulty,' and helps it to do the work of an adverb.
great :	an adjective, because it describes the difficulty.
difficulty :	a noun, because it is the name of something.
and :	a conjunction, because it joins the nouns 'difficulty' and 'danger.'
danger :	a noun, because it is the name of something.

PARTS OF A SENTENCE

II.—FORMS OF THE SUBJECT

Look at the following sentences :

John is here.

He is my brother.

The poor are always with us.

The subject of the first sentence is ' John '—a noun.

The subject of the second sentence is ' he '—a pronoun.

The subject of the third sentence is ' the poor '—adjectives qualifying a noun which is not expressed.

The subject of a sentence may be :

(a) A noun, as : *Men* must work.

(b) A pronoun, as : *They* are here.

(c) Adjectives qualifying a noun not expressed, as : *Blessed are the merciful.*

EXERCISE

Point out the subject in each of the following sentences, and say of what it consists :

The way was long. The wind was cold. The minstrel was infirm and old. The last of all the bards was he. He begged his bread from door to door. The lake lies sleeping at my feet. They know the way. Who comes here ? What does he say ? Where are the others ? Some have already left. The wise shall lead. The brave are our defenders. There is no breeze upon the fern. The deer has sought the brake. The small birds will not sing aloud. The springing trout lies still. We look around. You never can tell. She will have her own way. Which book do you want ? Blessed are the poor in heart. There the wicked cease from troubling. There the weary are at rest. The small and great are there.

III.—SUBJECT PROPER AND ATTRIBUTES

Look at the following sentences :

The merry mice stay in their holes.

This old house is falling.

Men of ability are always wanted.

The subjects of these sentences are ' the merry mice,' ' this old house,' ' men of ability.'

The essential part of the subject in every case is the noun—' mice ' in the first sentence, ' house ' in the second, ' men ' in the

third. We may call this essential part of the subject **the subject proper**.

The other words which form part of the subjects are in each case words which are put with or assigned to the noun to describe it in some way. We may therefore call them **attributes** to the subject. (Latin *at, to, and tribuo, I assign.*)

We may analyse the above sentences accordingly as follows :

Mice	<i>subject proper</i>
the merry	<i>attributes to the subject</i>
stay in their holes.	<i>predicate.</i>

House	<i>subject proper</i>
this old	<i>attributes to the subject</i>
is falling.	<i>predicate.</i>

Men	<i>subject proper</i>
of ability	<i>attribute to the subject</i>
are always wanted.	<i>predicate.</i>

The subject proper of a sentence is often accompanied by one or more attributes.

An attribute to the subject proper of a sentence may be :

- (a) An adjective, as : *Twenty men have arrived.*
- (b) An adjectival phrase, as : *Men of that kind are common.*
- (c) A noun used as an attribute, as : *A land breeze shook the shrouds.*
- (d) A noun used in apposition to another noun, as : *William the Conqueror was crowned at Westminster.*

When a noun denoting the same person or thing is used after another noun, it is said to be in apposition to the other noun, as : *Whang the miller was very avaricious. John the Baptist was slain by Herod, King of Judea.*

EXERCISES

1. Analyse the following sentences, dividing them into **subject proper, attributes, and predicate** :

The whole sky was covered with clouds. A tremendous sea rolled in upon us. The violence of the storm was appalling. His eye was clear. A bitter motion of derision passed over his lips. Their voice was heard. Nothing else will give you any comfort. Dear, gentle, patient, noble Nell was dead. Aurelius, the Christian priest, stretched forth his hand. All the lesser waterfalls were now level with the flood. No half-crown rod of ash is seen in his practised hand. Under a spreading chestnut tree the village smithy stands. How gloriously the festive bells resound. The summer night has a smile of light. Five thousand men had been fighting the instant before. Now not a living soul was to be seen. Many of the fugitives were overtaken. A dozen clerks were at their posts. A thousand blended notes were heard. George the First ascended the throne.

2. Select the attributes in the above sentences, and tell of what each consists.

PARTS OF A SENTENCE

IV.—THE PREDICATE AND ITS ADJUNCTS

Look at the following sentences :

The sun shines brightly.
 They rise early.
 The house stands near.
 They came in haste.
 He works with skill.
 He returned on that account.

In each of these sentences the essential part of the predicate is the verb, but in each case the verb is accompanied either by an adverb or by an adverbial phrase, which serves to indicate when or where or how or why the action denoted by the verb takes, or took, place.

It is convenient to have a name for any words or phrases which accompany the verb and indicate the time, place, manner, or cause of the action. We shall therefore call such words or phrases **adverbial adjuncts**, or simply **adjuncts**, to the predicate. (The word 'adjunct' means something 'joined to.')

The predicate of a sentence is often accompanied by one or more adverbial adjuncts which show the time, place, manner, or cause of what is stated in the predicate.

An adjunct to the predicate of a sentence may be :

An adverb, as : He *now* knows. He lives *near*. He speaks *well*.

An adverbial phrase, as : He arrived *at daybreak*. He lives *in yonder cottage*. He speaks *with fluency*. He came *on your account*.

Sentences containing adverbial adjuncts to the predicate may be analysed as follows :

The sun	<i>subject</i>
shines	<i>predicate</i>
brightly.	<i>adjunct of manner.</i>

He	<i>subject</i>
arrived	<i>predicate</i>
at daybreak.	<i>adjunct of time.</i>

They	<i>subject</i>
live	<i>predicate</i>
in yonder cottage.	<i>adjunct of place.</i>

EXERCISES

1. *Point out the adverbial adjuncts in the following sentences, and tell of what they consist :*

If we look wider, things are all alike. Take her up tenderly. Lift her with care. Out went the taper, as she hurried in. He knows them thoroughly. They sang not, though oftentimes they might have sung. Round each house lay a garden. He walked on the banks of the river. He laboured there with much success. He preached with great acceptance. During the day they worked. In the evening they read. He struggled bravely on. We sat down to rest. Under a spreading chestnut tree the village smithy stands. Walk carefully. Why have you come? Where did you sleep? When did you arrive? How did you travel? We came by coach. They started at nine o'clock. Come soon. In haste he rode.

2. *Analyse all the sentences given above which contain only one verb.*

KINDS OF NOUNS

COMMON, PROPER, MATERIAL, ABSTRACT

Look at the following sentences :

This man has a horse, a sheep, and a goat.
George lives in Liverpool.
Africa produces gold, corn, and cotton.
He possesses both strength and courage.

In the first sentence the noun 'man' is a name which is shared by a great number of people, and the names 'horse,' 'sheep,' and 'goat' belong to an immense number of different animals of these three kinds.

Nouns of this kind are called **Common Nouns**. (The word 'common' here means 'shared by many'.)

A **Common Noun** is a name that is shared by many things of the same kind.

In the second sentence the noun 'George' is the name of one particular person of whom we are thinking, and Liverpool is the name of a particular place.

We call nouns of this kind **Proper Nouns**. (The word 'proper' here means 'one's own'.)

A **Proper Noun** is the name of some particular person, or place, or event.

In the third sentence given above the nouns 'gold,' 'corn,' and 'cotton' are names of substances or materials. Such nouns are called **Material Nouns**.

A **Material Noun** is the name of some particular substance or material.

These three classes of nouns all agree in this, that they are names of things themselves, things that we perceive by the senses, real things. They are therefore often classed together as **Concrete Nouns**, a word which means 'solid,' 'substantial,' 'real.'

But the nouns 'strength' and 'courage' in the fourth sentence are not, like the other kinds of nouns mentioned, names of things themselves: they are names of qualities or attributes of things, which we conceive in our minds by taking them away in thought from the things to which they belong. Such nouns are called **Abstract Nouns**, a word which means 'taken away.'

An **Abstract Noun** is the name of some quality, state, or action of a thing.

Abstract nouns also include names of arts and sciences, as: music, geography; and names of times and seasons, as: summer, winter, an hour, a year; all of which are things that we conceive in our minds.

A special kind of Common Noun is what are called **Collective Nouns**. A **Collective Noun** is the name of a thing which is made up of a collection of other things. Thus an army is a collection of soldiers; a flock a collection of sheep; a crowd a collection of persons. The peculiarity of such nouns is that we may be thinking at one time of the collection as a whole, at another time of the units which compose it.

Examples of Common Nouns.—At the bottom of the garden, in the bed of flowers, there are some nice buds. On the grass under the trees in the park there are six little lambs.

Examples of Proper Nouns.—Ernest and Amy went with their uncle Robert to Leeds. Syria lies north of Arabia, and forms a part of Turkey in Asia. The Reformation, the Restoration, and the Revolution were great events of English history.

Examples of Material Nouns.—Give me some bread and butter. England produces much coal and iron. England imports tea, coffee, sugar, flax, hemp, cotton, and wool.

Examples of Abstract Nouns.—The education of Josiah Wedgwood ended in his ninth year, and it amounted to a slight grounding in reading, writing, and arithmetic. He had no patience with idleness, and could not bear slovenly work. Summer and autumn are the pleasantest seasons of the year. Hope and fear, like life and death, are in our lot.

EXERCISES

1. *Point out the nouns in the following sentences, and tell to which class each belongs :*

While Harold still lived, while the horse and his rider still fell beneath his axe, the heart of England failed not, the hope of England had not wholly passed away. The battle had raged ever since nine in the morning, and evening was now drawing in. New efforts, new devices, were needed to overcome the resistance of the English. The Duke bade his archers shoot up in the air, that their arrows might as it were fall straight from heaven. The effect was immediate and fearful. Helmets were pierced ; eyes were put out ; men strove to guard their heads with their shields, and in so doing, they were of course less able to wield their axes.

Behold, a giant am I,
Aloft here in my tower ;
With my granite jaws I devour
The maize, the wheat, and the rye,
And grind them into flour.

The farmer's daughter hath frank blue eyes
(Butter and eggs and a pound of cheese) ;
She hears the rooks caw in the windy skies
As she sits at her lattice and shells her peas.

2. *From a page of your reading-book pick out (a) the common nouns, (b) the proper nouns, (c) the material nouns, (d) the abstract nouns.*

PARSING OF NOUNS. SECOND STAGE

George has timber, tools, and skill.

George : a proper noun, because it is the name of a particular person.
timber : a material noun, because it is the name of a material or substance.
tools : a common noun, because it is shared by many things of the same kind.
skill : an abstract noun, because it is the name of a quality.

In Norway, in winter, snow lies deep on all the hills.

Norway : a proper noun, because it is the name of a particular place.
winter : an abstract noun, because it is the name of a season.
snow : a material noun, because it is the name of a substance.
hills : a common noun, because it is shared by many things of the same kind.

KINDS OF PRONOUNS

PERSONAL, INTERROGATIVE, AND RELATIVE

Look at the following sentences :

John went out : **he** got wet.
 Who went with him ? Tom did.
 I know a man **who** will go.

In the first sentence the pronoun **he** stands for the noun John. It simply indicates the person spoken of. It is called a **Personal Pronoun**.

In the second sentence the pronoun **who** is used to ask a question, and stands for the noun which is the answer to the question. It is called an **Interrogative Pronoun**.

In the third sentence the pronoun **who** stands for the noun man, and also relates or connects the two parts of the sentence to each other. It is called a **Relative Pronoun**.

There are thus three kinds of Pronouns : **Personal, Interrogative, and Relative**.

A **Personal Pronoun** is one which simply stands for the name of some person or thing, as : John came yesterday ; **he** left to-day.

An **Interrogative Pronoun** is one which stands for a noun, and at the same time asks a question, as : **Who** did this ? Tom did.

A **Relative Pronoun** is one which stands for a noun, and at the same time connects the parts of a sentence together, as : Where is the man **that** was here ?

The **Personal Pronouns** are : **I, you, he, she, it**, and **one** (in sentences like 'one does not know'), and their compounds **myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, and oneself**.

The **Interrogative Pronouns** are **who, which, and what**. (The interrogative word **which** is generally used as an adjective.)

The **Relative Pronouns** are **who, which, what, and that**, and their compounds **whoever, whosoever, whichever, whatever**.

The noun to which a relative pronoun relates or refers is called its **Antecedent**, a word which means 'going before.' Thus in the sentence 'This is the house that Jack built,' the word 'house' is the antecedent to the relative 'that.' The antecedent to the relative pronoun 'what' is never expressed, as : I know **what** you want.

EXERCISES

1. *Point out the pronouns in the following sentences, and tell the class to which each belongs :*

I know what he says. He does what they wish. We pain ourselves to please nobody. We paint those qualities which we do not possess. They went their own way. Are you the friend of your friend's buttons, or of his thought ? He who teaches others learns much himself.

Who is the happy Warrior ? Who is he
That every man in arms should wish to be ?
—It is the generous Spirit, who, when brought
Among the tasks of real life, hath wrought
Upon the plan that pleased his boyish thought :
Whose high endeavours are an inward light
That makes the path before him always bright :
Who, with a natural instinct to discern
What knowledge can perform, is diligent to learn.

2. *Parse the pronouns in the above sentences in the way shown below.*

3. *Write five sentences of your own containing personal pronouns, as many containing interrogative pronouns, and as many containing relative pronouns.*

PARSING OF PRONOUNS. SECOND STAGE

Who has come ? John. Have you seen him ? I have. The boy who was here has left. I know what you will say.

Who ? An interrogative pronoun, because it stands for a noun and asks a question.

you : a personal pronoun, because it stands for the name of the person spoken to.

him : a personal pronoun, because it stands for the noun ' John.'

I : a personal pronoun, because it stands for the name of the person who speaks.

who : a relative pronoun, because it stands for the noun ' boy ' and joins ' who was here ' to ' the boy has left.'

what : a relative pronoun, because it stands for a noun, and joins ' what you will say ' to ' I know.'

KINDS OF VERBS

TRANSITIVE, INTRANSITIVE, COPULATIVE

Look at the verbs in the following sentences :

The bird **flies**.
 The men **build** the house.
 The horse **is** strong.

We have already learned that a verb either tells what a thing **does**, or says that it **is** something.

Verbs that tell us what a thing **does** are of two kinds :

(a) Those in which the action is confined to the subject, as :
 The bird **flies**.

(b) Those in which the action **passes** over to something else,
 as : The men **build** the house.

A verb which tells us that a thing **is** something is shown in the third sentence : The horse **is** strong.

Thus there are three kinds of verbs :

1. Verbs expressing action which does not pass on, but stops with the subject, are called **Intransitive Verbs**, as : The gardener rests.

2. Verbs expressing action which passes on to something are called **Transitive Verbs**, as : The gardener digs the ground.

The name of the thing to which the action passes on is called the **Object** to the verb. In the above sentence **ground** is the object.

3. Verbs which say that a thing **is** or *seems* or *becomes* something are called **Copulative Verbs**, as : The gardener **is** strong.

The word which tells us what a thing is or seems or becomes is called the **Complement** to the verb. In the above sentence **strong** is the Complement.

The word 'transitive' means 'passing over.' The word 'intransitive' means 'not passing over.' The word 'copulative' means 'joining or coupling together.' A copulative verb couples or joins the subject to some word which describes or defines it.

Examples of Transitive Verbs.—I saw him. He helped me. They climbed the mountain. He told a lie. He is making bricks. She will receive a prize. He loves reading. They recognised their friends. You can go. They fell the tree. We sang a duet. Give me your book.

Examples of Intransitive Verbs.—He walks and talks. They eat and sleep. The boy runs and jumps. They will soon arrive. Go away. The grass grows. The tree falls. It lies on the ground.

Examples of Copulative Verbs.—John was late. He seemed tired. He turned very pale. They appeared happy. George is a shepherd. He looks wise. Henry became King. They grow tall.

EXERCISE

Pick out the verbs in the following sentences, and tell whether each is transitive, intransitive, or copulative :

- I know him well. He lives alone. He was an incessant talker. I saw
- them run. He seemed to be the leader. This tree grows well. The boy grows tall. Take your share. He proved a failure. They were mountaineers. He seems brave.

I hear the smithy's hammer, stroke on stroke.
 A steed is at the door ; the rustics talk.
 A shallow river breaks o'er shallow falls.
 Beside the ancient sluice that turns the mill
 The lusty miller bawls.
 The parson listens in his garden walk,
 The red-cloaked woman pauses on the hill.
 This is a place, you say, exempt from ill.
 The lark is singing in the blinding sky,
 Hedges are white with May. The bridegroom sea
 Is toying with the shore, his wedded bride.
 He decorates her tawny brow with shells,
 Retires a space, to see how fair she looks,
 Then proud, runs up to kiss her.

PARSING OF VERBS. SECOND STAGE

He was tired. He sat down. He ate his dinner.

- was : a copulative verb, because it joins the subject ' he ' to a word saying what he was.
- sat : an intransitive verb, because it expresses action which does not pass to an object.
- ate : a transitive verb, because it expresses action which passes on to an object.

EXERCISE

Parse in the manner indicated all the verbs in the last exercise.

PARTS OF A SENTENCE

V.—FORMS OF THE PREDICATE

We have just seen that there are three kinds of verbs. In the same way there are three kinds of predicates.

The predicate of a sentence may be :

- (a) An intransitive verb, as : The child *sleeps*. The weather *clears*.
- (b) A transitive verb with its object, as : He *bought* a horse.
- (c) A copulative verb with its complement, as : He *became* deaf.

EXERCISE

Point out the predicate of each of the following sentences, and tell of what it consists :

The thunder reared. The rain fell heavily. We reached the orchard. They climbed the hill. My horse moved on. I saw a crowd of golden daffodils. The waves beside them danced. The grass is bright with rain-drops. The sky rejoices in the morning's birth. Himself he recognised. My former thoughts returned.

FORMS OF THE OBJECT

The object to a transitive verb may assume any of the forms that are assumed by the subject of a sentence. Thus it may be :

- (a) A noun, as : He built *a house*.
- (b) A pronoun, as : You know *him*.
- (c) Adjectives, qualifying a noun not expressed, as : We honour *the* brave.

EXERCISE

In the following sentences point out the object and say of what it consists :

Pity the poor. He knows us. He pities himself too much. The cataracts blow their trumpets. I hear the skylark's song. We shun the wicked. The true-hearted we love. What seek you ? The song-birds sang a joyous song. Take this knife. Help me. He had no patience.

FORMS OF THE COMPLEMENT

The complement to a copulative verb may assume almost any of the forms assumed by the subject of a sentence, or by an attribute to the subject. Thus it may be :

- (a) A noun, as : He is *a carpenter*.
- (b) A pronoun, as : I am *he*.
- (c) An adjective, as : He seems *wise*.
- (d) An adjectival phrase, as : The house is *of small size*.

EXERCISE

Point out the complement to each verb in the following sentences and say of what it consists :

It is I. Thou art the man. We are shepherds. She is tall. The grass is green. They became leaders. Love is an unerring light. The room is lovely. The very houses seem asleep. That tool is of no use. The little girl turned very pale. The lion was king. The sky was cloudless. His brain grew giddy with the thunder of the cataract.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES CONTAINING OBJECTS AND COMPLEMENTS

When the verb of a sentence is intransitive, the verb and the predicate are the same. But when the verb is transitive or copulative, the object or the complement forms as important a part of the predicate as the verb, and it would be wrong to call the verb simply predicate. In such cases, when we wish to distinguish the verb from the object or the complement, we shall call it 'the predicate verb.' The analysis of the three kinds of predicates will therefore appear as follows :

Where the verb is intransitive :

The weather	<i>subject</i>
cleared.	<i>predicate.</i>
The rain	<i>subject</i>
fell	<i>predicate</i>
heavily.	<i>adjunct of manner.</i>

Where the verb is transitive :

He	<i>subject</i>
built	<i>predicate verb</i>
a house.	<i>object.</i>
The boys	<i>subject</i>
watered	<i>predicate verb</i>
the fruit-trees	<i>object</i>
yesterday.	<i>adjunct of time.</i>

Where the verb is copulative :

He	<i>subject</i>
is	<i>predicate verb</i>
a carpenter.	<i>complement.</i>
The very houses	<i>subject</i>
seem	<i>predicate verb</i>
asleep	<i>complement</i>
to-day.	<i>adjunct of time.</i>

EXERCISE

Analyse the sentences in the three preceding exercises in the manner indicated above.

KINDS OF ADJECTIVES

Look at the adjectives in the following sentences :

Horses are very useful animals.
 How much money have you ?
 I have ten pounds.
 This is the third week of the month.
 He lives in this town.

The adjective 'useful' in the first sentence tells us what kind of animals are spoken of. Such adjectives are called **Adjectives of Quality**. (Latin *qualis*, of what kind.)

The adjective 'much' in the second sentence indicates how much money is spoken of. Such adjectives are called **Adjectives of Quantity**. (Latin *quantus*, how much.)

The adjective 'ten' in the third sentence tells how many pounds are spoken of, or the number of pounds that is spoken of. Such adjectives are called **Adjectives of Number** (or **Numeral Adjectives**).

The adjective 'third' in the next sentence indicates the order in which the week comes. Such adjectives are called **Adjectives of Order** (or **Ordinal Adjectives**).

The adjective 'this' in the last sentence points out or distinguishes the town referred to. Such adjectives are called **Adjectives of Distinction** (or **Distinguishing Adjectives**).

Adjectives are divided into **Adjectives of Quality, Quantity, Number, Order, and Distinction**.

Adjectives of Quality tell us *what kind* of thing is spoken of.

Adjectives of Quantity tell us *how much* of a thing is spoken of.

Adjectives of Number tell us *how many* things are spoken of.

Adjectives of Order tell us *the order* in which a thing is spoken of.

Adjectives of Distinction tell us *what thing* is spoken of.

Adjectives of Number may be **Definite**, that is, denoting an exact number, as : He has *three* books ; or **Indefinite**, that is, denoting an inexact number, as : He has *many* books ; or **Distributive**, that is, denoting a number of things taken one by one, as : *Each* book has its use.

Several of our English numerals are nouns, such as a dozen, a hundred, a thousand, a million. These are used as attributes to other nouns in the plural, as : a dozen eggs ; a hundred pounds ; a thousand sheep ; a great many people.

Adjectives of Order include words like *third, fourth, twentieth*, formed from the adjectives of number; words like *first, second*, not derived from adjectives of number; and a few other words such as *former, latter, last, next*.

Adjectives of Distinction may be *Demonstrative*, as: *this house; that house; the house; the same house*; or *Indefinite*, as: *a house; any house; some house*; or *Interrogative*, as: *which house? What house?*

The adjectives *a* and *the* are so commonly used that they have received special names. *A* is called the *Indefinite Article*, and *the* the *Definite Article*.

EXAMPLES

Adjectives of Quality.—They passed through a *lofty* portal and looked through the *open* doorway. They saw before them a *spacious* hall. A very *beautiful* woman rose from her loom. She met the *poor, weather-beaten* wanderers with a *hospitable* smile. There was a clatter of *silver* vessels, or *golden* ones, which made him imagine a *rich* feast in a *splendid* banqueting hall. *Dear, gentle, patient, noble* Nell was dead.

Adjectives of Quantity.—He gets *enough* work, but *little* wages. He is a *man of much* ambition, but *little* sense. He has *more* brains than *perseverance*. He has *no* money. Have you *any* flour? He spent the *whole* amount. We have had *less* rain than usual.

Adjectives of Number.—They heard *several* feminine voices. They saw *four* other young women. Around the walls were ranged *two and twenty* thrones. *Each* of the strangers was invited to sit down. Here are some *sheep*. They are worth *sixteen* shillings each. Will you take them all? *No* visitors called to-day. *Every* dog has his day. *Either* stick will do.

Say in regard to each of these adjectives whether it is definite, indefinite, or distributive.

Adjectives of Order.—This is the *first* time I have seen the man, but it is the *second* time he has been here. He came for the *last* time. He left again *next* day. It was the *thirty-first* of the month. You have said so for the *hundredth* time.

Adjectives of Distinction.—This tree grows *well*. That valley is *deep*. Do you see *yonder* hill? This is a *book*. It is *the* book that I want. Are you *the same* boy that I *saw* yesterday? He departed *the self-same* hour. That is *the very* thing. *Which* thing do you mean? *What* work can you do?

EXERCISE

In the following sentences, point out the adjectives, classify them, and tell what words they qualify:

The next day was wet. The place became full of a watchful intentness now, for when other things sank brooding to sleep, the heath appeared slowly to awake and listen. The strictest order prevailed. No arms were allowed to be carried. There were always two officers of the day, and sixteen men told off as a guard to maintain discipline. Alas! the good behaviour and fine fighting qualities of these amiable emigrants were destined to be of no avail. The one absorbing purpose that had filled all my thoughts for several weeks past vanished in an instant from my mind. All remembrance of the heartless injury the man's crimes had inflicted passed from my memory like a dream.

USE OF THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives of Quality are used with all kinds of nouns, in both numbers, as : Bold Henry. The wise Arabs. A tall tree. Tall trees. Tough clay. Tough clays. Great virtue. Great virtues.

Adjectives of Quantity are used only with material and abstract nouns in the singular number, as : Some bread. Much patience.

The adjectives of quantity are often used as nouns, as : All is lost. Much has happened. Little has been done. Enough has been said. Though *used* as nouns in such sentences, they retain their essential character as adjectives, as is shown by the use of adverbs like 'too' and 'very' along with them, as : Too much has been said. Very little has been done.

Adjectives of Number are used chiefly with common nouns in the plural number, as : Seven days. Many horses. Several times. They are occasionally used with proper and abstract nouns, as : The four Marys. He had great virtues. The adjectives **one** and **no** and the distributive numerals **each**, **every**, **either**, **neither**, are used with nouns in the singular number, as : One day. No man. Every year. Each child.

The adjectives **one**, **other**, and **another** are often used as pronouns, and when so used take the inflections of the plural number and the possessive case like nouns, as : One's meat is another's poison. The little ones are crying. The others have not come. They love one another. He has not a white tie, but he has a black one.

Adjectives of Order are used chiefly with nouns in the singular number, as : The first month. The seventh day. The twentieth man. The hundredth year.

Adjectives of Distinction are used with all kinds of nouns in both numbers, as : This Henry. Those Browns. The leaf. The leaves. Yonder mountain. Yonder mountains. That quality. Those qualities. This bread. The adjective **a** or **an**, which is another form of **one**, is used only with singular nouns.

USE OF THE ADJECTIVES 'A' AND 'THE'

Look at these sentences :

A man came into the village leading a dog.
The people stared at the man and the dog.

When we speak of a thing for the first time, we use the adjective **a**.

When we speak of it afterwards, we use the adjective **the**.

A is said to be **Indefinite** : it is used with the name of a thing which is undefined. **The** is said to be **definite** : it is used with the name of a thing already in some way defined. In the second sentence given above, the man and the dog are defined as those already referred to, and the people are defined as those of the village referred to.

The adjective **a** is always used before Singular Common Nouns, if there is no other distinguishing word, as : I see **a** hill. Yonder is **a** mountain.

The adjective **a** is not used before Proper Nouns, unless when they are used in a general sense, as : John, Henry, Thomas, London, France ; but A Daniel come to judgment ! where ' **a** Daniel ' means ' a very wise man.'

The adjective **a** is not used before Material Nouns, unless when a particular variety of the material is specified, as : Gold, silver, and copper are the precious metals. This is **a** tough clay.

The adjective **a** is not used before Abstract Nouns, unless when a particular instance of some quality is referred to, as : Truth, honour, courage. Patience is **a** virtue. He told **a** falsehood.

The form **an** is used instead of **a** before a word beginning with a vowel sound, as : **an** apple, **an** eagle, **an** orange, **an** hour, **an** heir, **an** honour ; but **a** European, **a** union. Before words beginning with **h** (except when **h** is silent as it is in hour, heir, &c.) **a** is used when the first syllable of the word has the accent, and **an** in other cases, as : **a** hospital, **a** history ; but : **an** historical novel.

The adjective **the** is not used before Proper Nouns, unless they are in the plural number, or are otherwise defined, as : The bold Buccleuch. The eight Henrys.

The is used before Common, Material, and Abstract Nouns to define the particular person, thing, material, or quality referred to, as : That is **the** boy. Have you **the** money ? **The** patience of Job.

The is used before Common Nouns when the name of an animal or plant is taken as a type of its class, as : The horse is **a** noble animal. The rose is the sweetest of our garden flowers.

The is used before Common Nouns which are names of things unique of their kind, as : The sun ; the earth ; the sea ; the sky ; the coast ; the ocean ; the King ; the Queen.

The is used, in the sense of ' those who are,' before an adjective describing a noun which is not expressed, as : The poor (those people who are poor) ; the merciful ; the wise and brave.

The adjectives of distinction **same** and **self-same** always take **the** before them, as : On **the same** day, in **the self-same** hour.

The adjective of distinction **certain** takes **a** before it before singular common and abstract nouns, as : A **certain** day. A **certain** quality.

The adjective of distinction **such** takes **a** after it before singular common and abstract nouns, as : On **such** a day, in **such** a place.

The adjective of number **many**, when it is used in a distributive sense, is followed by **a** and a singular noun, as : **Many** **a** man fell on that fatal day.

In phrases like ' a great many roses,' ' a few people,' the words ' many ' and ' few ' may be regarded as collective nouns with the preposition ' of ' understood after them. In the phrase ' a little money,' the word ' little ' may be regarded as an abstract noun with ' of ' understood after it. **Few** means ' not many ' ; **a few** means ' some.' **Little** means ' not much ' ; **a little** means ' some.'

When two nouns denoting different things come together, each of them takes the adjective **a** or **the**, as : The ox and the horse are the most useful domestic animals. He had **a** sword and **a** shield.

When two nouns denoting the same thing are used together, the adjective **a** or **the** is put before the first only, as : He was **the** secretary and treasurer. He was **an** orator and statesman.

KINDS OF ADVERBS

ADVERBS OF TIME, PLACE, MANNER, CAUSE, DEGREE, MOOD

Look at the following sentences :

He arrived yesterday.
 They live near.
 He spoke well.
 He therefore remained.
 She quite failed.
 You have probably heard.

The adverb 'yesterday' in the first sentence tells **when** he arrived. It is an **Adverb of Time**.

The adverb 'near' in the second sentence tells **where** they live. It is an **Adverb of Place**.

The adverb 'well' in the third sentence tells us **how** he spoke. It is an **Adverb of Manner**.

The adverb 'therefore' in the fourth sentence tells **why** he remained. It is an **Adverb of Cause**.

The adverb 'quite' in the fifth sentence tells us **how much** she failed, or the **degree** in which she failed. It is an **Adverb of Degree**.

The adverb 'probably' in the last sentence shows the **manner** or *mood* in which the statement is made. It is an **Adverb of Mood**.

Adverbs of Degree are chiefly used with adjectives or with other adverbs, as in the following sentences: A *very* old man arrived. I am *very* tired. He is *exceedingly* sorry. They were *almost* dead. They lived *very* happily together. We miss you *so much*. Run *as fast as* you can.

In each of the sentences given at the beginning of the lesson, the adverb adds something to the meaning of the verb, adjective, or adverb with which it is used. We can therefore now define the adverb more fully than on page 9.

An Adverb is a word which is used with a verb, an adjective, or another adverb to add something to its meaning, as: The moon shines **brightly**. That is a **very** tall tree. They fought **very bravely**.

There are six kinds of Adverbs : Adverbs of Time, Adverbs of Place, Adverbs of Manner, Adverbs of Cause, Adverbs of Degree, and Adverbs of Mood.

EXAMPLES

Adverbs of Time.—Go now. Return soon. Return immediately. When will you come ? We shall come to-morrow. He often speaks. He seldom writes. She lived long.

Adverbs of Place.—Go back. Look up. Come down. He swung backwards and forwards. Where does he live ? He lives here. It is somewhere.

Adverbs of Manner.—He ran fast. They came quickly. He fought manfully. She spoke thus. Do it so. How does he write ? Sing softly and sweetly. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

Adverbs of Cause.—Accordingly he remained. The sides are equal, therefore the angles are equal. Why did you return ? Wherefore have you come ?

Adverbs of Degree.—They are very happy. He was eminently reasonable. We are exceedingly busy. Learn as much as possible. The more you try, the better you will succeed. He worked so hard, that he was quite worn out. He is thoroughly competent. How pretty it is !

Adverbs of Mood.—It is certainly true. He has not returned. He may possibly recover. Perhaps he will speak. You are probably right.

INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS

Look at the following sentences :

When did you arrive ?
Where did you leave your friend ?
How did you travel ?
Where did you leave your brother ?
Why did you not come sooner ?

The words 'when,' 'where,' 'how,' 'why' in these sentences are all adverbs, and they are all used to ask questions. We see from these examples that, just as we have pronouns which are used in asking questions, called **Interrogative pronouns**, so we have adverbs which are used in asking questions.

Adverbs which are used in asking questions are called **Interrogative Adverbs**, as : When did you arrive ?

These adverbs belong to one or other of the classes of adverbs already mentioned. Thus in the sentence 'When did you arrive ?' 'When ?' is an **interrogative adverb of time**. In the sentence 'How did you travel ?' 'How ?' is an **interrogative adverb of manner**.

RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS

Look also at the following sentences :

I shall be here when you come.
 I know where you live.
 Do you know how he got on ?
 Tell me why he went away.
 I met him as I returned.

We see from these examples that, just as there are pronouns which stand for nouns and at the same time join the parts of a sentence together, called **relative pronouns**, so there are adverbs which add to the meaning of verbs and at the same time join the parts of a sentence together.

Adverbs which join the parts of a sentence together are called **Relative, or Conjunctive, Adverbs**.

Like the interrogative adverbs, conjunctive adverbs belong to one or other of the classes of adverbs already mentioned : thus in the first sentence given above 'when' is a conjunctive adverb of time, in the second sentence 'where' is a conjunctive adverb of place, &c.

The word 'as' is a conjunctive adverb of time in : 'I met him as I returned' ; a conjunctive adverb of manner in : 'You must do as you are told' ; a conjunctive adverb of degree in : 'She is as tall as her brother.'

In the combinations 'as far as,' 'as much as,' 'as tall as,' and the like, the first 'as' is an ordinary adverb of degree, while the second 'as' is a conjunctive adverb of degree.

EXERCISES

1. *Mention the adverbs in the following sentences, classify them, and say what word each modifies :—*

The dog lay outside. The waves crept slowly up the beach. He could easily have come. The boy struggled bravely in the waves. The dam of the beaver is built chiefly of branches. Formerly there were many lions in South Africa. The children gathered closer together. He almost fainted. Swiftly glides the bonny boat. I can throw it ever so far. Go as quickly as you can. The clerk sat down at his desk. The door was slowly pushed open. The lion moved restlessly in its cage. They sought him everywhere. The hunter suddenly found himself face to face with a rhinoceros. The boy hung his head very low. Presently he recovered from his confusion. Tie him up tightly. I am exceedingly sorry. He is wonderfully well. He plays well. I do not hear you distinctly enough. Perhaps they will come to-morrow. Where were you yesterday ? He will come back again soon. Run very quickly. Why have you returned so soon ?

2. *Write five sentences of your own containing adverbs of time, as many containing adverbs of place, as many adverbs of manner, as many adverbs of cause, and as many adverbs of mood.*

PARSING OF ADJECTIVES. SECOND STAGE

These four black horses are very handsome. Each has much spirit, but I prefer the second.

- These :** adjective of distinction, because it tells us what horses are spoken of.
four : adjective of number, because it tells us how many horses are spoken of.
black : adjective of quality, because it tells us what kind of horses are spoken of.
handsome : adjective of quality, because it tells us what kind of horses are spoken of.
each : adjective of number, because it tells us the number of horses spoken of.
much : adjective of quantity, because it tells us how much spirit is spoken of.
second : adjective of order, because it tells us which horse is spoken of.

PARSING OF ADVERBS. SECOND STAGE

He comes soon. He went back. They ran quickly. We stayed therefore. You probably know him. I am quite tired. They lived very happily. When did they arrive? Do you know where he lives?

- soon :** adverb of time, because it tells when he comes.
back : adverb of place, because it tells where he went.
quickly : adverb of manner, because it tells how they ran.
therefore : adverb of cause, because it tells why we stayed.
probably : adverb of mood, because it shows in what manner the statement is made.
quite : adverb of degree, because it tells how tired I am.
very : adverb of degree, because it tells how happily they lived.
when : interrogative adverb of time, because it asks a question in regard to time.
where : relative or conjunctive adverb of place, because it refers to place and joins clauses.

NOTE.—The words *now*, *then*, *once*, *where*, usually adverbs, are nouns when used along with prepositions, as in the following sentences: He stayed till *then*. He has not come till *now*. They returned *at once*. *Where* do you come from? *Where* are they going to?

The words *now* and *then* are adjectives in phrases like the following: The *then* Premier (The man who was *then* Premier). The *now* Duke (The man who had *now* become Duke).

FORMS OF NOUNS

MASCULINE AND FEMININE

Compare the words in the two following lines :

Father.	Prince.	Sorcerer.	Tiger.	He-goat.
Mother.	Princess.	Sorceress.	Tigress.	She-goat.

The words in the first line denote persons and animals of the male sex. The words in the second line denote persons and animals of the female sex. The distinction between words which indicates sex is called **Gender**, a word which means 'class' or 'kind.'

There are two genders—**Masculine** and **Feminine**.

Words that denote persons and animals of the **male sex** are said to be of the **Masculine Gender**, as : man, boy, horse, lion.

Words that denote persons and animals of the **female sex** are said to be of the **Feminine Gender**, as : woman, girl, mare, lioness.

Words that denote things without life are said to be of **Neuter Gender**, that is, of **neither gender**, as : stone, book, river, house.

Words that may be used to denote both males and females are said to be of **Common Gender**, that is, of **either gender**, as : parent, cousin, beast, bird.

Distinction of Gender is marked in three ways in English :

(1) **By a prefix**, as in the following words :

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
He-goat	She-goat	Cock-bird	Hen-bird
He-ass	She-ass	Cock-sparrow	Hen-sparrow
He-bear	She-bear	Male-child	Female-child
Bull-calf	Cow-calf	Buck-rabbit	Doe-rabbit
Bull-elephant	Cow-elephant	Man-servant	Maid-servant

(2) **By a suffix**, as in the following words :

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot	Abbess	Count	Countess
Actor	Actress	Deacon	Deaconess
Author	Authoress	Duke	Duchess
Baron	Baroness	Emperor	Empress
Benefactor	Benefactress	Giant	Giantess

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
God	Goddess	Songster	Songstress
Governor	Governess	Sorcerer	Sorceress
Heir	Heiress	Tiger	Tigress
Host	Hostess	Traitor	Traitress
Hunter	Huntress	Viscount	Viscountess
Instructor	Instructress	Votary	Votaress
Lion	Lioness	Administrator	Administratrix
Marquis	Marchioness	Executor	Executrix
Master	Mistress	Heritor	Heritrix
Mayor	Mayoress	Testator	Testatrix
Negro	Negress	Czar	Czarina
Peer	Peeress	Hero	Heroine
Poet	Poetess	Landgrave	Landgravine
Priest	Priestess	Margrave	Margravine
Prophet	Prophetess	Signor	Signora
Shepherd	Shepherdess	Sultan	Sultana

(3) By using a different word in the feminine :

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor	Maid, spinster	Horse	Mare
Beau	Belle	King	Queen
Boar	Sow	Lad	Lass
Brother	Sister	Lord	Lady
Buck	Doe	Man	Woman
Bull	Cow	Monk	Nun
Bullock	Heifer	Nephew	Niece
Cock	Hen	Papa	Mamma
Colt	Filly	Ram	Ewe
Dog	Bitch	Sir	Madam
Drake	Duck	Sire	Dam
Earl	Countess	Sloven	Slut
Father	Mother	Son	Daughter
Friar	Nun	Stag	Hind
Gander	Goose	Stallion	Mare
Gentleman	Lady	Uncle	Aunt
Hart	Roe	Wizard	Witch

EXERCISE

Determine the gender of the following words :

Sheep, ox, stallion, mare, horse, cousin, parent, boy, girl, peacock, moorhen, duck, gander, witch, bride, companion, master, servant, guide, leader, instructor, teacher, nephew, aunt, monk, madam, slave, mayor, magistrate, house, stone, wall, prudence, priest, priesthood, king, kingdom, relative, donor, dome, ditch, governor, governess, Joseph, Josephine, Francis, Frances, John, Joan, soldier, tailor, dressmaker, cook, butler, deer, trout, whale, mountain, wind, amazon.

FORMS OF NOUNS

SINGULAR AND PLURAL

Look at the following words :

A horse.	Two horses.
A book.	Three books.
A child.	Five children.

We see from these examples that nouns have one form when the noun refers to one thing and another form when it refers to more than one thing. This difference is called in Grammar **Number**.

The form of a word used in speaking of one thing is called the **Singular Number**.

The form of a word used in speaking of more than one thing is called the **Plural Number**.

Compare the words in the two following lines :

A dog.	A bush.	A leaf.	A lady.	An ox.	A mouse.	A sheep.
Dogs.	Bushes.	Leaves.	Ladies.	Oxen.	Mice.	Sheep.

We see from these examples that the plural does not always differ from the singular in the same way. We must learn the following rules in regard to the forming of the plural of nouns :

1. The plural is usually formed by adding 's' to the singular, as : boy, boys ; girl, girls ; lark, larks ; peacock, peacocks ; but :

2. In nouns ending in a hissing sound (s, sh, ch *soft*, x, or z), the plural is formed by adding **es**, as : gas, gases ; sash, sashes ; church, churches ; box, boxes ; topaz, topazes.

3. In the following words ending in **f** and **o**, the plural is formed by adding **es** : Buffalo, calico, cargo, domino, echo, flamingo, hero, innuendo, manifesto, mosquito, motto, mulatto, negro, no, potato, tomato, tornado, volcano, alkali, houri, salmagundi, as : buffalo, buffaloes ; echo, echoes ; alkali, alkalies. Other words ending in **o** add **s**, as : folio, folios ; canto, cantos ; Scipio, the Scipios.

4. In words ending in **y**, preceded by a consonant sound, the plural is formed by changing **y** into **i** and adding **es**, as : lady, ladies ; city, cities ; sky, skies ; soliloquy, soliloquies. But day, days ; journey, journeys.

5. In words ending in **f** or **fe**, the plural is usually formed by changing **f** or **fe** into **v** and adding **es**, as : leaf, leaves ; shelf, shelves ; thief, thieves ; wolf, wolves ; life, lives ; wife, wives ; knife, knives. The following, however, simply add **s** : reef, roof, cliff, gulf, chief, dwarf, turf, fife, strife, safe. Wharf takes both forms, wharfs and wharves.

6. A few words form their plural in **en**, as : ox, oxen ; brother (meaning member of a society), brethren ; child, child-r-en.

7. Six or seven words form their plural by changing the vowel sound of

the singular, as: man, men; woman, women; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; mouse, mice.

8. Several nouns have the plural the same as the singular, as: sheep, deer, grouse, fish, trout, salmon, cannon, shot, grouse, score, dozen.

9. Many nouns of foreign origin retain their foreign plurals. For a list of such words with their plurals see the Appendix.

A few words have two plurals, differing in meaning, as:

brother: brothers (of the same family), brethren (of the same society).

cloth: cloths (kinds of cloth), clothes (garments).

die: dies (for coining), dice (for gambling).

genius: geniuses (men of talent), genii (fabulous beings).

pea: peas (when numbered), pease (when measured).

penny: pennies (separate coins), pence (a sum).

shot: shots (the times fired), shot (the balls fired).

Several nouns are not used in the singular. They are chiefly names of things used in pairs, as: compasses, pincers, scissors, tongs, trousers, spectacles; names of diseases, as: measles, mumps; names of games, as: draughts, billiards; also words such as: aborigines, annals, goods, thanks, victuals.

Many words ending in **s** are singular, as: alms, barracks, bellows, innings, news, pains, riches; and names of sciences like ethics, mathematics, optics, politics. Means is both singular and plural, as: 'by this means,' 'by all means.'

Proper nouns may be used in the plural when different persons of the same name are referred to, as The **Smiths** and the **Browns**; the four **Marys**.

Material nouns are not used in the plural, as: gold, cotton, wool; unless when different kinds of the same substance are referred to, as: the alkaline **earths**.

Abstract nouns are not used in the plural, as: courage, temperance; unless when different instances of a quality are referred to, as: He has all the **virtues**. Men's evil **manners** live after them.

EXERCISES

1. *Write the plural of the following words*: Man, woman, boy, girl, parent, child, brother, sister, husband, wife, master, mistress, servant, man-servant, maid-servant, lord, lady, father-in-law, son-in-law, nephew, niece, gentleman, Frenchman, gentlewoman, uncle, miss, attorney-general.

2. *Also of the following*: Ass, horse, ox, sheep, rabbit, deer, elephant, goose, trout, calf, salmon, goat, grouse, partridge, donkey, monkey, fox, pea, potato, carrot, onion, cabbage, grass, beech, ash, rush, mountain, island, gulf, bay, peninsula, cave, grotto, arch, axe, axis, cameo, negro, nuncio, bamboo, two.

3. *Write the singular of the following words*: Footmen, churches, stories, storeys, flamingoes, mice, genii, halves, colloquies, pennies, pence, shillings, knives, lives, staves, leaves, griefs, prefixes, foemen, women-servants, courts-martial, armies, gipsies, noes, woes, vases, sheep, perches, finches, wolves, deer, lionesses, lasses, fowls, feet, teeth, nuptials, lungs, measles, shears, snuffers, billiards.

FORMS OF NOUNS

CASE

Look at the following sentences :

John speaks.

We hear John.

That is John's hat.

In the first sentence the noun 'John' is the subject to the predicate 'speaks'; that is, John is the person named as speaking. The noun 'John' is said to be in the **Nominative Relation or Case** to the verb 'speaks.' The word **nominative** means **named**.

In the second sentence the noun 'John' is the name of the object that we hear. The noun 'John' is said to be in the **Objective Relation or Case** to the verb 'hear.'

In the third sentence the noun 'John' is the name of the possessor of the hat. Here the noun 'John' is said to be in the **Possessive Relation or Case** to the noun 'hat.'

The word **Case** in English Grammar simply means 'Relation.'

A noun or pronoun which forms the subject of a sentence is said to be in the **Nominative Case** to the verb of the sentence.

A noun or pronoun which forms the object to a transitive verb is said to be in the **Objective Case** to the verb.

A noun which denotes the possessor of a thing is said to be in the **Possessive Case** to the name of the thing possessed.

Nouns in English have the same form for the **Nominative** and **Objective**. (Pronouns have usually a different form for the **Objective**.)

The **Possessive Case** is generally formed by adding 's to the simple form of the noun, as : John, John's ; the child, the child's ; the children, the children's.

When a plural noun ends in s, the apostrophe only is added in the **Possessive**, as : the horses' food ; the fairies' dance.

When a singular noun of one syllable ends in an s sound, the **Possessive** is formed by adding 's, as : James's books ; Charles's wain.

When a singular noun of two or more syllables ends in an s sound, the apostrophe only is added in the **Possessive**, as : for Jesus' sake ; for righteousness' sake ; for conscience' sake.

USE OF THE CASES

The Nominative and Objective Cases are each used in a considerable variety of ways.

A noun or pronoun is in the **Nominative Case** when it is used :

1. As the subject to a verb, as : The sun shines. He runs.
2. As the complement to a copulative verb, as : He is king. It is he.
3. In direct address, as : John, come here. A noun used in direct address is said to be in the **Nominative of Address**.
4. With a participle to express time or circumstance, as : The sun having risen, we went on our way. The work being completed, the workmen were paid off. A noun or pronoun used with a participle to express time or circumstance is said to be in the **Nominative Absolute**.
5. Along with another noun in the nominative, denoting the same thing, as : Wolsey, the great Cardinal, died in 1530. A noun which denotes the same person or thing as another noun in the nominative is said to be in the **Nominative in Apposition** to the other noun.

A noun or pronoun is in the **Objective Case** when it is used :

1. As the direct object to a transitive verb, as : He killed a lion.
2. As the indirect object to verbs of giving, as : They gave the man a reward. He taught the boy grammar.

The adjectives and adverbs like, unlike, near, nigh are also followed by the indirect objective, as : You are like your brother. He works like a Trojan. He lives near the town. As soon as he comes nigh the door.

3. As the objective complement to a verb of making, as : They made him King. They called him John. They thought him a rogue.

4. As the objective complement to a copulative verb preceded by a noun or pronoun in the objective, as : They compelled him to become their companion.

5. In apposition to another noun in the objective, as : Do you know my neighbour Jones ?

6. With intransitive verbs to express ideas of time, space, measure, and weight, as : They travelled all night. He walked four miles. The stick measured six inches. It weighed four pounds. Nouns used with intransitive verbs to express ideas of time, space, measure, and weight are said to be in the **Adverbial Objective**.

7. As the object to a preposition, as : The son of the king. Between sea and land.

A noun or pronoun is in the **Possessive Case** when it is used to express by inflection the possessor, or author, or origin of a thing, as : John's books ; Shakspeare's plays ; the sun's rays.

The possessive case is generally used to express the relation of possession with names of persons, names of animals, names of things personified or dignified, and names of periods of time, as : The child's games. The horse's stall. Victory's emblem. The moon's beams. The ocean's depths. A moment's reflection. He had four months' leave.

In other cases the relation of possession is expressed by the use of the preposition *of* followed by the objective case, as : The top *of* the house. The bottom *of* the sea. The people *of* the town.

When two nouns in the possessive are in apposition, the possessive inflection is used only with one, as : He lives at Smith, the bookseller's ; or, He lives at Smith's, the bookseller.

When two or more nouns in the possessive are connected by *and*, the possessive inflection is used with the last only, as : Smith, Brown and Company's stores.

When two nouns connected by *of* express a single idea, the possessive inflection is added at the end of the phrase, as : The King *of* England's realm ; the Duke *of* Portland's estates.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE DIFFERENT USES OF THE OBJECTIVE

The Direct Objective.—The groom struck the horse. The horse kicked the groom. Who broke the dish ? Who has seen my knife ? He had a shilling. She sang a song. He taught me. He taught geography. Whom did you see ? What do you want ? Give him his tools. Ring the bell.

The Indirect Objective.—His father made him a coat of many colours. Time will bring you your reward. His mother asked him a question. My tutor taught me geography. Lend me your ears. They refused him admittance. They allowed him an advocate. My father on a birthday gave it me. You promised us a treat. They guaranteed him his liberty. The king gave the merchants leave to trade. Methinks he came. He is very unlike his parents. He lives like a prince. He sat next the door.

The Objective Complement.—The dog made himself very useful in fetching the sheep. You think yourself very clever. I thought it very nice that you should say so. The found the ice too weak to bear them. They considered him a nuisance. They elected him president. They called him their chief. They took him to be nobody. They considered him to be their debtor.

The Adverbial Objective.—She was eight years old, she said. He was two years younger. The wall was three feet thick. She sang all the way. A mile out of town they overtook a horse and cart. He watched night after night. I saw him some time ago. He did not get home till dark. A pint of water weighs a pound and a quarter. He was a little tired.

EXERCISE

In the following sentences tell the case of each noun, and say how it is used :

Each man has his own vocation. The talent is the call. He is like a ship in a river. Give your merits room. The harp, his sole remaining joy, was carried by an orphan boy. After an hour's rest, the boy sat down to rest under a spreading tree. The trout weighed six pounds. His work being done, the carpenter laid down his tools and went home. John, where is your brother ? He has gone to Jones, the saddler's. He took a year's furlough. They made him their leader. They wished him to become their chief. He gave the boy five pounds. Call John the boatman. George has read Shakspeare's plays and Bacon's essays. Call at Fletcher and Norton's. Have you seen the Duke of Westminster's farms ?

FULL PARSING OF NOUNS

The river Avon at Rugby is a slow and not very clear stream.

- river :** noun, common, neuter, third person singular, in the nominative case to the verb 'is.'
- Avon :** noun, proper, neuter, third person singular, in the nominative in apposition to the noun 'river.'
- Rugby :** noun, proper, neuter, third person singular, in the objective case to the preposition 'at.'
- stream :** noun, common, neuter, third person singular, in the complementary nominative to the verb 'is' (or in the nominative case after the copulative verb 'is').

The school hours were long and Tom's patience short. He soon walked a long distance.

- school :** noun, common, neuter, used as attribute to the noun 'hours.'
- hours :** noun, abstract, neuter, third person plural, in the nominative case to the verb 'were.'
- Tom's :** noun, proper, masculine, third person singular, in the possessive case to the noun 'patience.'
- patience :** noun, abstract, neuter, third person singular, in the nominative case to the verb 'was' (understood).
- distance :** noun, abstract, neuter, third person singular, in the adverbial objective to the verb 'walked.'

I hear you have taken James Anderson's daughter into your family now, Mr. Bruce.

- James Anderson's :** noun, proper, masculine, third person singular, in the possessive case to the noun 'daughter.'
- daughter :** noun, common, feminine, third person singular, in the objective case to the verbs 'have taken.'
- family :** noun, common (collective), third person singular, in the objective case to the preposition 'into.'
- Mr. Bruce :** noun, proper, masculine, second person singular, in the nominative case of address.

The father being dead, they offered his son the sceptre, and next day proclaimed him king.

- father :** noun, common, masculine, third person singular, in the nominative absolute before the participle 'being.'
- son :** noun, common, masculine, third person singular, in the indirect objective to the verb 'offered.'
- sceptre :** noun, common, neuter, third person singular, in the objective case to the verb 'offered.'
- day :** noun, abstract, neuter, third person singular, in the objective case to a preposition understood.
- king :** noun, common, masculine, third person singular, in the complementary objective to the verb 'proclaimed.'

When the pupil has obtained some facility in parsing thus fully, the parts relating to gender, person, and number (e.g. masculine, third person singular) may be omitted in ordinary practice. The essential things in parsing are, first, the classification of words, and, second, their relationship to other words.

PARTS OF A SENTENCE

VI.—THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF OBJECT

As even transitive verbs vary greatly in meaning among themselves, they are followed by several different kinds of Object.

Transitive verbs generally take an object of the person or thing directly affected by the verbal action, as: He bought a watch. They felled the tree. This is called the **Direct Object**.

Verbs implying any kind of giving or refusing take, besides the direct object, an object of the person to whom anything is given or refused. This is called the **Indirect Object**, as: They gave the boy a prize. He taught me grammar. They refused him admittance.

Verbs of beginning, continuing, finishing, attempting, and the like are followed by a verb in the infinitive mood naming the action begun, continued, &c. This is called the **Object of Action**, as: He began to play. He continued to speak. He ceased speaking. He tried to sing.

The object of action is a special kind of direct object.

Verbs of perceiving, and also verbs of commanding, are followed by a direct object and an object of action, as: We saw him come. We heard her sing. They watched us arrive. I saw the prisoner (be) shot. He commanded them to halt. He told us to come. Let us go.

Verbs of making into, in thought, word or act, take, besides the direct object, an **Objective Complement** expressing the result of the action. This may be either a noun or an adjective, as: They made him King. They called him Robert. They thought him wise. They considered him a paragon.

The direct object answers to the question 'whom?' or 'what?'

The indirect object answers to the question 'to whom?' or 'what?'

The object of action answers to the question '(to) do what?'

The adverbial objective answers to the questions 'how much?' 'how far?' 'how long?' The adverbial objective is not an object to the predicate verb. It is an adjunct to the predicate.

EXERCISE

In the following sentences point out the objects and classify them :

They bought a hundred sheep at the sale. I heard a thousand blended notes. I rebuckled the cheek-strap. I patted his ear. I made the girth tight. I called my Roland his pet name. I crown thee king of intimate delights. He heard a noise in the hedge. The noise in the hedge now made him turn round. I saw three ships come sailing by. I see him jump before me. Who told you to do it ? You can hear his bellows blow. You can hear him swing his heavy sledge. They love to see the flaming forge. He hears his daughter's voice. It makes his heart rejoice. Each morning sees some task begun. Each evening sees it close. Something attempted, something done, has earned a night's repose. He heard the tinkling caravan descend the mountain road. He taught the boy to trap the wild creatures of the wood. He saw once more his dark-eyed queen among her children stand. The nightingale felt herself blush. They tried to run away. They began to give much trouble. O'er Roslin all that dreary night, a wondrous blaze was seen to gleam. He was compelled to accompany the soldiers. He was not allowed long to enjoy his booty. We thought him brave. They elected him president. They gave him a free hand. We were allowed due liberty. We were told a strange story. He taught me geography and grammar.

PERSON IN NOUNS

Look at the following :

I, George, shall stand here.
 You, Robert, will sit there.
 John will wait yonder. He is the last.

When a person speaks of himself, as in the first sentence, the noun and pronoun are said to be in the **First Person**.

When a person speaks *to* another, as in the second sentence, the noun and pronoun are said to be in the **Second Person**.

When a person speaks *of* another, as in the third sentence, the noun and pronoun are said to be in the **Third Person**.

Nouns have the same form in whichever Person they are used.

As a person rarely speaks of himself by name, nouns are rarely in the **First Person**. A noun which is in the Nominative of Address is always in the **Second Person**. In the great majority of cases nouns are in the **Third Person**.

FORMS OF THE PRONOUNS

The Simple Personal Pronouns are **I, you, he, she, and it.**

I is the pronoun of the First Person, that is, the person who speaks.

You is the pronoun of the Second Person, that is, the person spoken to.

He, she, and it are pronouns of the Third Person, that is, the person or thing spoken of.

He is the pronoun of the Third Person Masculine.

She is the pronoun of the Third Person Feminine.

It is the pronoun of the Third Person Neuter.

The personal pronouns have different forms for the Singular and Plural Numbers, and for the Nominative, Possessive, and Objective Cases. These forms are shown in the following table:

Pers.	Singular.			Plural.		
	Nom.	Obj.	Poss.	Nom.	Obj.	Poss.
I	I	me	my, mine	we	us	our, ours
II	you	you	your, yours	you	you	your, yours
III	Masc.	he	him	they	them	their, theirs
	Fem.	she	her, hers			
	Neut.	it	its			

In poetical and Biblical English the pronoun of the second person singular is **thou** in the nominative, **thy** and **thine** in the possessive, and **thee** in the objective. In such English also the nominative plural of the second person is **ye** and not **you**.

The possessive forms of the personal pronouns are used solely as attributes to nouns, expressed or understood. On this account they are regarded by many grammarians as adjectives, and are called possessive adjectives; while others again call them adjective pronouns. It seems best, however, to parse them as pronouns in the possessive case, just as we parse words like 'John's,' 'father's,' as nouns in the possessive case.

When the possessive case has two forms, the shorter forms, **my, thy, her, our, your, their**, are used when the name of the thing possessed is expressed after the pronoun, as: This is **my** book. The longer forms, **mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs**, are used when the name of the thing possessed is understood, as: This book is **mine**.

In older English the forms **mine** and **thine** were used before nouns when these began with a vowel or with silent **h**, as: **Mine** honour is avenged. **Mine** eyes have seen Thy salvation.

The word **one** (derived not from the English numeral, but from the French 'on,' meaning 'they') is often used as a sort of indefinite pronoun of the third person, as: **One** must not lose one's temper.

THE COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The compound personal pronouns are formed by adding the noun *self* to the possessive or objective forms of the simple personal pronouns. They are not used in the possessive case. They are declined as follows:

Pers.	Singular.		Plural.
	<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>		<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>
I	myself		ourselves
II	yourself		yourselves
III	Masc.	himself	themselves
	Fem.	herself	
	Neut.	itself	

The compound form of the indefinite pronoun of the third person is *oneself*.

In poetical and Biblical English the compound personal pronoun of the second person singular is *thyself*.

The compound personal pronouns are used:

(a) To express emphasis. They are then in apposition to some noun or pronoun, as: *I did it myself. The man went himself. We saw the woman herself.* When thus used they are often called *Emphatic Pronouns*.

(b) To express reflexive action, that is, action in which a person or thing is the object as well as the doer of the action, as: *He hurt himself. We see ourselves in the glass.* When used in this way they are often called *Reflexive Pronouns*.

The words *each-other*, *one-another*, are often parsed as *Reciprocal Pronouns*. They may, however, be looked upon as made up of two adjectives qualifying words not expressed, as: *They saw each other; that is, They saw, each (person) seeing (the) other (person).*

The words *this* and *that* when standing alone are often parsed as *Demonstrative Pronouns*, but it is always possible to regard them as adjectives pointing out something not expressed, as: *This (event) is what happened. That (statement) is not true.* If pronouns, they must always be regarded as referring to some noun or noun-equivalent, but as adjectives they can always be regarded as distinguishing the same noun or noun-equivalent.

THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

The interrogative pronoun *who* takes the same forms for singular and plural, but has different forms for the nominative, possessive, and objective cases, as: *Who is there? Who were there? Whose book is that? Whom did you see?*

The interrogative pronoun **who** is declined as follows :

Singular and Plural.

Nominative.

Objective.

Possessive.

Who ?

Whom ?

Whose ?

Of the compound forms of **who**, **whoever** is chiefly used in the nominative case, and **whosoever** and **whomsoever** in the possessive and objective, as : *Whoever* has come ? *Whosoever* house is that ? *Whomsoever* do you mean ?

The interrogatives **which** and **what**, and their compounds **whichever**, **whatever**, are used only in the singular, and have the same forms in the nominative and objective, as : *Which* of the men has come ? *Which* of them do you mean ? *What* has happened ? *Whatever* did he do ?

THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS

The relative pronoun **who** is declined in the same way as the interrogative **who**, as : The man *who* was here. The man *whose* work is done. The man *whom* I saw. The men *whom* I saw.

The relative **which** has the same form for the nominative and objective cases, as : The house *which* stands there. The house *which* you built. It has properly no possessive case, but often borrows the possessive case of the relative **who**, as : The dog *whose* master died.

The relative **that** has the same form in the singular and plural, and in the nominative and objective, as : The man *that* was here. The men *that* I saw.

The relative pronoun **what** is used only in the singular, and has the same form in the nominative and objective, as : He is *what* he was. He takes *what* he can get.

EXERCISES

1. Write the plural of each of the following pronouns :

He, it, you, I, myself, himself, yourself, who ? who, which, she.

2. Write the possessive case singular, and also the possessive plural, of each of the above.

3. Write the objective case singular, and also the objective case plural, of each of them.

4. Write the compound personal pronouns corresponding to the following simple pronouns :

She, I, you, they, he, it, one, thou, we, they, you.

5. Write short sentences of your own illustrating each of the forms of the simple personal pronouns.

6. Do the same for the compound personal pronouns.

7. Do the same for the interrogative pronouns.

8. Do the same for the relative pronouns.

FULL PARSING OF PRONOUNS

I see you. He praises himself. We love our friends. Who will go with us? Whose book is this? It belongs to the boy whom you saw. They themselves know what you will say.

I :	pronoun, personal, first person singular, in the nominative case to the verb 'see.'
you :	pronoun, personal, second person singular (or plural), in the objective case to the verb 'see.'
he :	pronoun, personal, masculine, third person singular, in the nominative case to the verb 'praises.'
himself :	pronoun, personal, reflexive, masculine, third person singular, in the objective case to the verb 'praises.'
we :	pronoun, personal, first person plural, in the nominative case to the verb 'love.'
our :	pronoun, personal, first person plural, in the possessive case to the noun 'friends.'
who :	pronoun, interrogative, third person singular (or plural), in the nominative case to the verb 'will.'
us :	pronoun, personal, first person plural, in the objective case to the preposition 'with.'
whose :	pronoun, interrogative, third person singular, in the possessive case to the noun 'book.'
it :	pronoun, personal, neuter, third person singular, in the nominative case to the verb 'belongs.'
whom :	pronoun, relative, masculine, third person singular like its antecedent 'boy,' in the objective case to the verb 'saw.'
you :	pronoun, personal, second person singular, in the nominative case to the verb 'saw.'
they :	pronoun, personal, third person plural, in the nominative case to the verb 'know.'
themselves :	pronoun, personal, emphatic, third person plural, in the nominative case in apposition to 'they.'
what :	pronoun, relative, neuter, third person singular, in the objective case to the verb 'say.'

USES OF THE PRONOUNS

THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Personal pronouns agree in number, gender, and person with the nouns for which they stand, as : The man took his hat. The day ran its course. The ladies took their sunshades.

A collective noun is followed by a singular pronoun (and verb) when we think of the collection as a whole, as : I see the army, it is large.

A collective noun is followed by a plural pronoun (and verb) when we think of the individual units of which it is composed, as : The Senate were divided in their opinions.

The noun for which a pronoun stands is often understood, as : Blessed are they that mourn (where 'they' stands for 'the persons' understood). Who steals my purse steals trash.

The pronoun **it** has several peculiar uses :

1. It is used not only in speaking of things without life, but also in speaking of animals, and even of young children, as : The horse has cast its shoe. The baby is in its crib.

2. It is used as the subject to a copulative verb followed by a complement of any number or person, as : It is I. It is you. It is they. Who is it ? What is it ? It was Peter. It was the trees.

3. It is used as the subject to an impersonal verb, that is, a verb usually describing the state of the weather, as : It rains, it snows, it freezes, it thunders, it is cold, it is wet.

4. It often stands for a phrase or a noun clause, as : It is noble to seek truth, and it is beautiful to find it. It was true that he had failed.

The pronoun **they** is sometimes used for 'people generally,' as : They say. What say they ? Let them say.

The indefinite personal pronoun **one** refers to any person, as : One cannot tell ; but it often stands for the speaker, as : It hurts one (*i.e.* it hurts me).

When a plural pronoun refers to two pronouns, or a noun and a pronoun, of different persons, it agrees with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third, as : John and I have come, **we** had lost our way. You and they will hear when you arrive.

For the sake of politeness **you** is put before **he**, and **he** before **I**, as : You and he must come. He and I will go. In the plural, **we** comes before **you**, and **you** before **they**, as : We, you and they will go.

THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

An interrogative pronoun agrees in gender, number, and person with the noun which forms the answer to the question, as : Whom do you expect ? We expect Jane and Mary.

Who is used only of persons ; **what** is used only of things ; **which** is used of both persons and things.

Who and **what** are indefinite ; **which** is definite, indicating that a choice has to be made of one or more out of a number, as : Who is it ? What is it ? Which of them do you mean ?

When the words **what** and **which** are used along with nouns, they are adjectives, as : What town did you visit ? Which book did you take ?

The interrogative pronoun may be preceded by a preposition ; otherwise

it is always the first word in the sentence, as : Who is there ? What do you want ? From whom do you come ?

Who, which, and what are used in asking questions directly and indirectly, as : Who is there ? What does he want ? Which will you have ? He asked me who was there. He told me what he wanted.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS

A relative pronoun agrees in gender, number, and person with the noun for which it stands. The noun for which a relative pronoun stands is called its Antecedent.

The relative pronoun **who** is used in speaking of persons, as : The people who were there. I who speak. You who listen.

The relative **which** is used in speaking of animals and things, as : The cattle which you saw ; the trees which are growing so well.

The relative **that** is used in speaking of persons, animals, and things, as : The man that I saw. The dog that he had. The trees that you planted.

The relative **that** is used properly only in a restrictive sense, that is, to define or limit the antecedent so as to make plain what person or thing is referred to, as : The dog that you gave me.

Hence **that** is the proper relative to use :

1. After the interrogative **who** ? as : Who **that** has heard him can doubt his sincerity ?

2. After the words **all**, **any**, **nothing**, **none**, and **same**, as : All **that** were there heard him. He was the same **that** came here yesterday.

3. After the superlative degree, as : He was the strangest man **that** I ever met.

4. After a collective noun, as : The crowd **that** gathered cheered him to the echo.

The relatives **who** and **which** are used both in a restrictive and in a continuative sense. In the latter they do not define the antecedent, but state something additional in regard to it, as : I met a man **who** gave me some money. I saw the dog, **which** barked at me loudly.

The place of the relative pronoun is as near to its antecedent as possible, and at the head of the clause which it introduces, as : And in his hand he shakes the brand, **which** none but he can wield.

The relatives **whom** and **which** can be preceded by a preposition, but this is never the case with **that**, as : He is a man in **whom** I believe. **That** is the town in **which** he lives. I know the house **that** he lives in.

The relative **what** is used when no antecedent is mentioned. The case of **what** depends on its relation to its own clause, not on its relation to the principal clause. **What** has happened is not clear. (**What** : nominative case to 'has'). He failed in **what** he attempted (**What** : objective case to 'attempted').

'As' and 'But.'

The word **as** is a relative pronoun when it is used after the words 'same' and 'such,' as : He was the same man **as** I had seen before. Your conduct is not such **as** any one can praise.

The word **but** is often parsed as a relative pronoun in sentences such as : 'There was no one **but** was offended.' In such a sentence it is better, however, to regard **but** as a conjunction, and to supply the personal pronoun **he** which is understood : 'There was no one **but** he was offended.'

FORMS OF THE VERB

THE MOODS

Look at the following sentences :

The boy comes.
 If he come, it will be a marvel.
 Come here.
 I wish to come.
 I see John coming.

In the first sentence the verb 'comes' makes a direct statement.

In the second sentence the verb 'come,' following the conjunction 'if,' puts a case which is quite doubtful.

In the third sentence the verb 'come' expresses a command.

In the fourth sentence the verb 'to come' names the action which I wish to perform.

In the fifth sentence the verb 'coming' describes John as doing something.

In each of these sentences the action of 'coming' is looked upon in a different manner.

In Grammar, the manner in which an action is viewed by the mind is called Mood. (The word 'mood' means 'manner.')

There are five Moods, the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Imperative, the Infinitive, and the Participial.

The Indicative Mood states a fact, as: He *comes*.

The Subjunctive Mood refers to action which is only thought of, or wished for, as: If he *come*, it will be a marvel. Long *live* the King.

The Imperative Mood gives a command, as: *Come* here.

The Infinitive Mood names an action, as: I wish *to come*.

The Participial Mood describes something as acting or acted upon, as: I see him *coming*. The dog was *beaten*.

The Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative Moods are called the Finite Moods, because they are the only parts of the verb that are defined or limited by number and person. The Finite Moods are the only parts of the verb that can form predicates by themselves. These moods together are called the Finite Verb.

The Infinitive and Participial Moods are Non-finite Moods, as they are not limited by number and person. These moods cannot form predicates by themselves.

FORMS OF THE MOODS

In the Indicative Mood the verb is in its simple form, except in the third person singular (see under Number and Person, p. 64), as : I love ; we love ; you love.

In the Subjunctive Mood the verb is in its simple form, as : If he come. If it be true.

In the Imperative Mood the verb is also in its simple form, as : Come ; speak ; bring.

The Infinitive Mood has three forms, which are seen in the following sentences :

I wish to speak.

You must not speak.

They are tired of speaking.

The form of the infinitive with ' to ' is the usual form.

The form of the infinitive without ' to ' is used after verbs of perceiving, such as *see, hear, feel, behold, perceive, observe, watch* ; after the verbs *may, can, must, shall, will, and do* ; after *bid, let, and make*, and after *dare and need* followed by ' not.' It is also used after the preposition ' but.'

The form of the infinitive in *ing* is that used after prepositions (except ' but'). It is also used as an alternative to the usual form in other cases, as : *Reading* is pleasant. I like *watching* the sun rise.¹

The Participial Moed has two forms. The first of these always ends in *ing*, as *loving*. The second usually ends in *d* or *t* or *en*, as : *loved, left, written*.

The participial form in *ing* is usually called the Present Participle. The participial form in *d* or *t* or *en*, or without ending, is called the Past Participle.

¹ The form of the Infinitive which ends in *ing* is usually called the Gerund. The ending *ing* of this form is apparently derived from the old English ending *ung* of Verbal Nouns, rather than from the old Infinitive ending *an* or *en* ; but in its present use the Infinitive in *ing* is clearly distinguishable from Verbal (Abstract) Nouns. When a word ending in *ing* is the name of an exercise or occupation, it is an abstract noun, as : *Reading, writing, and arithmetic* are the primary subjects of instruction. He goes in for *hunting, boating, and cricket*. But when a word ending in *ing* names an action, it is a verb in the infinitive mood, as : He likes *reading* aloud. Seeing is believing. The verbal noun takes ' of ' after it, as : The wearing of the green. The infinitive takes an object after it, as : He is tired of *wearing* the green.

USES OF THE MOODS

THE INDICATIVE MOOD

The Indicative is the most commonly used of all the moods. It is used :

1. To make a direct statement, as : I saw him.
2. To ask a question, as : Have you a horse ?
3. To express a supposition about which there is no doubt, as : If he does it well (assuming this to be the case) he ought to be rewarded.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

The Subjunctive Mood is not much used in modern English. It is used however :

1. To express a supposition which is doubtful, especially in regard to what is still future and therefore naturally uncertain, as : If he have any, he will give you some. If he were to come, we should be glad. If you should meet him, let me know.
2. To express a wish or supposition contrary to the fact, as : Would that he were here ! (but he is not). If the book were in my possession (which it is not) you should have it.
3. To express a result which is desired, as : Long live the King ! Thy will be done. I vote that the application be granted. I hope that you may be successful ; or which is not desired, as : Look after your horse here lest it should stumble. Mend your speech, lest it mar your fortune.

In older English the Subjunctive was also employed to express condition, as : I will not let thee go except thou bless me ; and future action generally, as : We shall not sit down to table till he come. I will wait till he return.

The Subjunctive Mood is usually preceded by a conjunction, such as 'if,' 'unless,' 'ere,' 'lest,' 'whether' ; but the same conjunctions are constantly used also with the Indicative. When the conjunction 'if' of a conditional clause is omitted, the verb is put before the subject, as : Had I known, I would not have come. Were he to come, I should recognise him at once. Had I the wings of a dove, I would fly. A sentence in which the verb is put before the subject is said to be inverted.

THE IMPERATIVE MOOD

The Imperative Mood is used to express a command, an admonition, or an entreaty, as : Go and work on my land. Consider the lilies, how they grow. Save me, or I perish.

The subject to a verb in the Imperative Mood is not usually expressed in modern English, as : Lend me a knife. Tell us a story. Go home.

In older English the subject was often expressed, as : Go *thou* and do likewise. Come *ye* apart by yourselves and rest for awhile.

A verb in the Imperative is always in the second person. To express a wish or desire in regard to the first or the third person we use the imperative of the verb let followed by a noun or pronoun of the first or third person and a verb in the Infinitive, as : Let us go. Let them laugh. Let the man speak.

THE INFINITIVE MOOD

The Infinitive is the noun form of the verb, and consequently can be used as the equivalent of a noun, while retaining its character as a verb.

Thus it is used :

1. As the subject to a verb, as : To err is human ; to forgive divine.
2. In apposition to the pronoun 'it' when used as an introductory subject, as : It is wise to rise betimes.
3. As the object to a verb, as : He promised to come. He loves telling stories. They told him to go.
4. As the complement to a verb, as : Seeing is believing. He seems to be happy.
5. As the object to a preposition, as : He is fond of studying languages. I left without seeing him. One cannot help but fear.

The Infinitive Mood is also used :

- (a) As an attribute to a noun, as : A house to let ; work to do ; reason to believe.
- (b) As an adverbial adjunct to a verb, as : Man works to live. He came to beg. He wept to see such quantities of sand.
- (c) As an adverbial adjunct to an adjective, as : Sure to go ; easy to learn ; hard to understand.

When used in these ways the Infinitive conveys the idea of purpose. The Infinitive thus used is sometimes called the Gerundial Infinitive.

The Infinitive Mood is sometimes used absolutely, as : To tell the truth, I do not know what he means.

It is sometimes used as an exclamation, as : To think that I should have made such a mistake !

THE PARTICIPIAL MOOD

Just as the Infinitive Mood partakes of the nature of the noun as well as of that of the verb, so the Participial Mood partakes of the nature of the adjective as well as of that of the verb. It is the adjectival form of the verb, and is used to describe a person or thing as *doing* something, as : The boy is playing. Running across the street, the girl fell.

The Present Participle describes action which is in progress, or incomplete, as : They are coming. Walking along the street we saw two soldiers hurrying past.

The Past Participle either describes action which is complete, as : The sun has risen ; or action which is passive, that is, suffered by the subject, as : The dog was beaten. Wounded by the thieves, the man lay upon the road.

The Past Participle of Intransitive Verbs always describes completed action.

The Past Participle of Transitive Verbs describes completed action when it follows the auxiliary verb 'have.' It denotes passive action when it stands alone or follows the auxiliary verb 'be.'

The Participles are sometimes used with a noun in the nominative absolute, as : The sun rising, we went on our way. The battle won, the army rested.

The Present Participle is sometimes used absolutely, as : Strictly speaking, participles have no reference to time.

The Participles are very often used purely as adjectives, and should then be parsed as such, as : A loving father ; a broken reed. His parents were loving and kind. This cup is broken.

The word Participle means 'partaking of' or 'partaking in.' The Participles are so called because they partake of the nature of verbs and of that of adjectives at the same time.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE MOODS

The Indicative.—He came, he saw, he conquered. I know, I think, I speak. He came close to me, and then he kneeled down, kissed the ground, and set my foot upon his head. This, it seems, was in token of swearing to be my slave for ever. Where are you ? How many have you ? Does he know ? Can he speak ? Are you ready ? Have you finished ? If you had not come, we should have been disappointed.

The Subjunctive.—If he have anything, he will give it. If he come, I will go. If the bleeding were not stopped, the child might die. To go round would take some time, even if he should run. I hope that he may succeed. Though he slay me, yet will I trust him. If he were to come, it would be different. Be it so.

The Imperative.—Stop and tell me. Come and see us. Give me your hand. Swiftly walk over the western wave, Spirit of Night ! Wrap thy form in a mantle grey. Blind with thine hair the eyes of day. Cast thine eyes eastward, and tell me what thou seest. The bridge thou seest is Human Life ; consider it attentively. Be great in act.

The Infinitive.—To err is human ; to forgive divine. I came to see you. Do you know how to swim ? I hear thee speak of a better land. I noticed him shiver. He was accused of stealing the fruit. He had no means of refreshing himself but by breaking off and eating some of the ice. They had great difficulty in crossing the lake. Stop rowing.

The Participles.—He stood watching it for some time. He remained lost in thought. We had often seen him weeding in his garden, and his wife hanging out clothes to dry. The sound of a boy's voice calling him made him stop. Turning in his saddle, he saw a boy running towards him. We were continually fighting. I have told you the truth. Told in this way, the event was not so marvellous.

EXERCISES

1. Tell the mood of each verb in the following sentences :

The poor savage who fled, though he saw both his enemies fallen and killed, was so frightened with the noise and fire of my piece that he stood stock-still, and neither came forward nor went backward, though he seemed rather inclined to fly than to come on. I hallooed to him, and made signs to come forward, which he easily understood, and came a little way ; I could then perceive that he stood trembling, as if he had been taken prisoner and were just about to be killed. Stop grumbling, my masters. Love all, trust a few, do wrong to none ; be able for thine enemy, and keep thy friend under thine own life's key ; be checked for silence, but never taxed for speech. Let us go. We said, ' Arise, and let's away.'

2. In the following sentences distinguish the words ending in *ing* into adjectives, participles, infinitives (or gerunds), and verbal (or abstract) nouns :

Climbing up a rocky path, we came upon a black, gaping chasm. We found a large pool boiling so violently that great volumes of foaming water heaved and spouted. The French King sent an army to aid the Scots in regaining their independence. He insisted on uniting his fortunes with those of Wallace. He closed with the champion in the hope of overpowering him in the struggle. Shivering with cold we gloomily made ourselves a cup of boiling tea. We ended by sleeping in spite of the croaking of the frogs. Happiness lies in living at one's ease. Drawing as well as needlework was taught in the school. They heard the increasing sound of three thousand horses, the striking of their hoofs at full trot, the rattling of the cuirasses, the clinking of the sabres, and a sort of fierce roar of the coming host.

FORMS OF THE VERB

THE PRESENT AND PAST TENSES

Look at the verbs in the following sentences :

I walk.	You dance.	We come.	They speak.
I walk-ed.	You dance-d.	We came.	They spoke.

The verbs in the first line all refer to action which is taking place at the present time.

The verbs in the second line all refer to action which took place at some time which is now past.

In Grammar, the distinction in the form of a verb which indicates the time of the action is called Tense. (The word 'tense' means 'time'.)

In English there are two tenses, the Present and the Past.

The Present Tense denotes action which is taking place at the present time, as : He *walks* and *speaks*.

The Past Tense denotes action which took place at some time which is now past, as : He *walked* and *spoke*.

If we look, in the sentences given above, at the way in which the past tenses differ from the present, we see that the pasts 'walked' and 'danced' differ from the presents 'walk' and 'dance' by the addition of *ed* or *d* ; while the pasts 'came' and 'spoke' differ from the presents 'come' and 'speak' by having a different vowel sound. Look also at the past 'felt' from 'feel,' 'bent' from 'bend,' and 'cut' from 'cut.'

Verbs that form their past tense by changing the vowel sound are called Strong Verbs, as : arise, arose ; sing, sang.

Verbs that form their past tense by adding *d* or *ed* or *t* to the present, or by changing final *d* into *t*, or that have the past the same as the present, are called Weak Verbs, as : love, loved ; turn, turned ; feel, felt ; bend, bent ; cut, cut.

The examples given above are all in the Indicative Mood.

The Subjunctive Mood has the same tenses as the Indicative, and forms them in the same way, as : If I *come* ; if he *should* come.

The Imperative Mood has only one tense, the Present, as : *Come*.

The Infinitive Mood has also but one tense, as : He loves to *speak*.

The Participial Mood, as already noted, has two forms, the Present or Incomplete Participle, and the Past or Complete Participle ; but these differ, not so much in regard to the *time*, as to the *state* of the action.

The Present Participle is formed by adding *ing* to the simple form of the verb, as : He was *speaking*.

The Past Participle is formed in weak verbs in the same way as the past tense of the Indicative ; but in strong verbs it is formed by changing the vowel sound, and often adds *en*, as : The bell has *rung*. He has *spoken*.

Before the endings *ed* and *ing*, a single consonant at the end of an accented syllable is doubled, as : stop, stopped ; permit, permitting. The letters *l* and *p* are doubled even in unaccented syllables, as : travel, travelled ; worship, worshipped.

Before the ending *ed*, *y* preceded by a consonant is changed into *l*, as : try, tried ; carry, carried.

Before the ending *ing*, *ie* is changed into *y*, as lie, lying ; die, dying.

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE VERB

The present and past tenses of the indicative and the past participle are called the Principal Parts of the Verb, because if we know these we can form from them all the other parts of the verb, namely, the present and past subjunctive, the imperative and infinitive, and the present participle.

Verbs which are wanting in one or more of the principal parts are called **Defective Verbs**. Such are *may*, *can*, *must*, *shall*, *will* (auxiliary), *ought*, *dare* (auxiliary), and *wit*, which have no past participle ; *quoth*, which is used only in the past tense ; and *methinks* (it seems to me), *melists* (it pleases me), and *worth* (be), which are used only in the present tense. *Me* in 'methinks,' 'melists,' and *day* in 'Woe worth the day,' are in the indirect objective. The present of the verb 'to wit' is *I wot*, and the past *I wist*.

FORMATION OF THE PAST TENSE AND PAST PARTICIPLE OF WEAK VERBS

In Weak Verbs the Past Participle always has the same form as the Past Tense of the Indicative Mood. The Past Tense is usually formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the simple form of the verb, as : *love*, *loved* ; *repeat*, *repeated*.

The verbs noted below are, however, irregular, the irregularities being due in almost all cases to contraction.

The following change final *d* into *t* :

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
bend	bent	bent
build	built	built
lend	lent	lent
send	sent	sent
rend	rent	rent

The following add *d* and change the vowel sound :

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
flee	fled	fled
hear	heard	heard
say	said	said
sell	sold	sold
shoe	shod	shod
tell	told	told

The following add *t* and shorten the sound :

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
creep	crept	crept
deal	dealt	dealt
feel	felt	felt
mean	meant	meant
sleep	slept	slept
spill	spilt	spilt
sweep	swept	swept
weep	wept	wept

The following add *d* and omit the consonant sound :

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
have	had	had
make	made	made

The following add *t* and change both vowel and consonant sounds :

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
bereave	bereft	bereft
beseech	besought	besought
bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
cleave	cleft	cleft
lose	lost	lost
seek	sought	sought
teach	taught	taught
think	thought	thought
work	wrought	wrought

The following simply shorten the vowel sound :

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
feed	fed	fed
lead	led	led
meet	met	met
read	read	read
shoot	shot	shot
speed	sped	sped

The following change the vowel sound, omit the consonant sound, and add *d*. They have no Past Participle :

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
can	could
shall	should
will	would

The following verbs have the same form for the Present and Past Tenses and the Past Participle :

Cast, cost, cut, hit, hurt, knit, let, put, rid, set, shed, shred, shut, slit, split, spread, thrust.

FORMATION OF THE PAST TENSE AND PAST PARTICIPLE OF STRONG VERBS

The Past Tense of Strong Verbs is formed by a change in the vowel sound. The Past Participle was originally formed by a change in the vowel sound and the addition of *en* or *n*. In many verbs this suffix has now been dropped. As the forms assumed depend almost entirely upon the sound, and not at all on the spelling, we shall classify these verbs according to the sound of the Present Tense. Some cases in which irregularity has arisen through a change in pronunciation are marked by an asterisk. Weak forms are placed within brackets.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
ăl	ō	l	ē	ō	ō
abide	abode	abode	awake	awoke	(awaked)
arise	arose	arisen	break	broke	broken
drive	drove	driven	ē	ŭ	ē
ride	rode	ridden	forsake	forsook	forsaken
rise	rose	risen	shake	shook	shaken
shine	*shone	*shone	slay	slew	slain
smite	smote	smitten	take	took	taken
stride	strode	stridden	ē	o	o
strike	*struck	struck	beget	begot	begotten
strive	strove	striven	forget	forgot	forgotten
thrive	throve	thriven	get	got	got
write	wrote	written	swell	(swelled)	swollen
ăl	au	au	tread	trod	trodden
bind	bound	bound	l	ō	ō
find	found	found	cleave	clove	cloven
grind	ground	ground	freeze	froze	frozen
wind	wound	wound	speak	spoke	spoken
ăl	l	l	steal	stole	stolen
bite	bit	bitten	weave	wove	woven
chide	chid	chidden, chid	l	ă	u
hide	hid	hidden	begin	began	begun
slide	slid	slidden, slid	drink	drank	drunk
ă	ō	ô	ring	rang	rung
bear	bore	born	*run	ran	run
bear	bore	borne	shrink	shrank	shrunk
shear	shore	shorn	sing	sang	sung
swear	swore	sworn	spin	span	spun
tear	tore	torn	spring	sprang	sprung
wear	wore	worn	swim	swam	swum

Pres.	Past.	P. Part.	Pres.	Past.	P. Part.
i	ā	i, ā	ō, ō	ū	ô, ô
bid	bade	bidden	draw	drew	drawn
give	*gave	given	saw	(sawed)	sawn
sit	sat	sat	blow	blew	blown
spit	spat	spit	crow	crew	(crowed)
			know	knew	known
i	u	u	mow	(mowed)	mown
cling	clung	clung	grow	grew	grown
fling	flung	flung	sew	(sewed)	sewn
sling	slung	slung	sow	(sowed)	sown
sting	stung	stung	throw	threw	thrown
string	strung	strung			
swing	swung	swung			
wring	wrung	wrung			
dig	dug	dug			
stick	stuck	stuck			
win	won	won			
ô, ô	e	ô, e			
fall	fell	fallen			
behold	beheld	beheld			
hold	held	held			

The following do not seem to belong to any particular class :

beat	beat	beaten
come	came	come
eat	ate	eaten
fight	fought	fought
fly	flew	flown
go	(went)	gone
hang	hung	hung
lie	lay	lain
see	saw	seen
slay	slew	slain
stand	stood	stood

The participial forms drunken, shrunken, sunken, shaven, stricken, beholden, laden, and molten are now only or chiefly used as adjectives.

USES OF THE TENSES

The Present Tense is used :

- To state what is now taking place, as : It rains. They come.
- To state what is always true, or habitually takes place, as : London stands on the Thames. The modern country gentleman generally receives a liberal education.
- In vivid narrative, to describe past action as if it were now taking place, as : And now he feels the bottom, now on dry earth he stands, now round him throng the Fathers, to press his gory hands.
- To describe future action when the time is stated, as : He comes to-morrow ; next week.

The Past Tense is used :

- To state what took place at a definite past time, as : He set out on Wednesday last.
- To tell what habitually or frequently took place, as : Men lived in wretched hovels. Drinking and cock-fighting were the common amusements of the people.

SEQUENCE OF THE TENSES

The Present Tense may be followed either by a present or a past tense, as : He says that he sees them. He says that he saw them. He tells me that they will come. He tells me that they would come if they could.

The Past Tense is always followed by a past tense, as : He said that he saw them. He told me that they would come. We heard that they had arrived. We were informed that he was engaged. He had asserted that the facts were so ; unless where something which is always true is referred to, as : Galileo maintained that the earth moves.

EXERCISES

1. *In the following sentences change the verbs from the present tense into the past :*

I know my duty. He does his work well. You think you know everything. We see what you are doing. He has finished his task, and is going home. They seldom speak. I shall think myself happy if your parents will dine with me. I always feel I have missed some good fortune if I am away from home when my bees swarm. He goes on Sunday to the church, and sits among his boys. He hears the parson pray and preach. These men will fight. I cannot see you. They may do what they like. He finds a reception which may well encourage him to hope that his enterprise will have a prosperous issue.

They come forth from the darkness, and their sails
Gleam for a moment only in the blaze ;
And eager faces, as the light unveils,
Gaze at the tower, and vanish while they gaze.

2. *In the following sentences change the verbs from the past tense into the present :*

He sobbed, and wept, and clapped his hands, and hallooed, and finally ran down the street. He saw and heard everything that passed. We stood at the window of an inn that fronted the prison. The day was about to break. He saw that if he tarried, the cavalry would soon intercept his retreat. He mounted and rode from the field. He was struck to the ground and lay as one dead. The clock struck eleven, and the duke with his bodyguard rode out of the castle.

The chieftain shook in his bannered hall,
As the sound of fear drew nigh ;
And the warder shrank from the castle wall,
As the gleam of spears went by.

FORMS OF THE VERB

NUMBER AND PERSON

A finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person, as: I go, you go, he goes; he loves, they love.

Thus the verb, like the noun and pronoun, has three persons,¹ the first, second, and third; and two numbers, the singular and plural.

In modern English the verb has lost almost all its inflections for number and person. It still retains (in most verbs) the inflection **s** of the third person singular in the present tense of the indicative mood, as: He love-**s**, praise-**s**, begin-**s**, speak-**s**, work-**s**.

Verbs which end in a sibilant sound, and the verbs **do** and **go**, add **es** in the third person singular, as: He bless-**es**, wish-**es**, teach-**es**, do-**es**, go-**es**. The letter **y** preceded by a consonant becomes **i** before **es**, as: He carries.

It is rather remarkable that while the noun has no inflection in the nominative singular and takes **s** in the plural, the verb on the contrary takes **s** in the singular and has no inflection in the plural. In this case we can only say that the noun and the verb agree to differ.

In Biblical and poetical English the second person singular of the verb takes the inflection **est** or **st** in both the present and past tenses when 'thou' is the subject, as: Where thou goest, I will go. When thou wast young, thou girdedst thyself, and walkedst whither thou wouldst.

In English of the same kind the older form **eth** or **th** is often used instead of **s** in the third person singular, as: Blessed is the man that walketh not in the counsel of the ungodly nor standeth in the way of sinners.

CONJUGATION OF A VERB

A verb is said to be conjugated when all its forms are exhibited.

The conjugation of a regular weak verb, and of a strong verb, is shown on pp. 65 and 66. The pronouns are prefixed to the verbal forms to indicate the number and person more clearly.

¹ A few verbs are only used in the third person singular with 'it' (expressed or understood) as subject. Such are: 'It hails.' 'It rains.' 'It snows.' 'It freezes.' 'It thunders.' 'Methinks.' 'Melists.' Such verbs are called Impersonal Verbs.

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR WEAK VERB

LOVE

INDICATIVE MOOD

<i>Present.</i>			<i>Past.</i>		
Singular.	Plural.		Singular.	Plural.	
1. I love	we	} love	1. I	we	} love-d
2. you love	you		2. you	you	
3. he love-s	they		3. he	they	

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

<i>Present.</i>			<i>Past.</i>		
Singular.	Plural.		Singular.	Plural.	
1. I	we	} love	1. I	we	} love-d
2. you	you		2. you	you	
3. he	they		3. he	they	

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Singular.	Plural.
2. love	2. love

INFINITIVE MOOD

to love love lov-ing

PARTICIPIAL MOOD

<i>Present or Incomplete.</i>	<i>Past or Complete.</i>
lov-ing	love-d

FULL PARSING OF VERBS

I desire to learn. He saw me arrive. She gets weary of knitting.

- desire :** verb, transitive, indicative mood, present tense, first person singular like its subject 'I.'
- to learn :** verb, intransitive, infinitive mood, in the objective case to the verb 'desire.'
- saw :** verb, transitive, indicative mood, past tense, third person singular like its subject 'he.'
- arrive :** verb, intransitive, infinitive mood, in the objective case to the verb 'saw.'
- gets :** verb, copulative, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular like its subject 'she.'
- knitting :** verb, intransitive, infinitive mood, in the objective case to the preposition 'of.'

CONJUGATION OF THE STRONG VERB BREAK

INDICATIVE MOOD

<i>Present.</i>				<i>Past.</i>			
Singular.		Plural.		Singular.		Plural.	
1. I	break	we	} break	1. I	} broke	we	} broke
2. you	break	you		2. you		you	
3. he	break-s	they		3. he		they	

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

<i>Present.</i>				<i>Past.</i>			
Singular.		Plural.		Singular.		Plural.	
1. I	} break	we	} break	1. I	} broke	we	} broke
2. you		you		2. you		you	
3. he		they		3. he		they	

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Singular.	Plural.
2. break	2. break

INFINITIVE MOOD

to break break break-ing

PARTICIPIAL MOOD

<i>Present or Incomplete.</i>	<i>Past or Complete.</i>
break-ing	brok-en

FULL PARSING OF VERBS

If he come, tell him what you heard. Sitting on the gate, I saw the dog beaten by his master.

- come : verb, intransitive, subjunctive mood, present tense, third person singular like its subject 'he.'
- tell : verb, transitive, imperative mood, second person singular (or plural) like its subject 'you' (understood).
- heard : verb, transitive, indicative mood, past tense, second person singular (or plural) like its subject 'you.'
- sitting : verb, intransitive, present participle, referring to the pronoun 'I.'
- saw : verb, transitive, indicative mood, past tense, first person singular like its subject 'I.'
- beaten : verb, transitive, past participle, referring to the noun 'dog.'

PARTS OF A SENTENCE

VII.—FORMS OF THE SUBJECT, OBJECT, &c.

We are now able to recognise a larger number of possible forms of the subject and of the other parts of a sentence.

The Subject or the Object of a sentence may be :

(a) A noun, as : The *horses* neighed. They are shearing the *sheep*

(b) A pronoun, as : *They* told *him*. *He* sees *us*.

(c) An adjective qualifying a noun not expressed, as : *Few* have arrived. Help the *weak*.

(d) A verb in the infinitive, with or without dependent words, as : *To err* is human. He likes *reading*. *Reading aloud* is fatiguing. He wishes *to go to town*.

The Complement to a copulative verb may be :

(a) A noun, as : The lion was *king*. Behold ! a giant am I.

(b) A pronoun, as : It is *they*.

(c) An infinitive, as : This house is *to let*. You seem *to be enjoying yourself*.

(d) An adjective, as : The day was *cloudless*. I am *ready to go*.

(e) An adjectival phrase, as : His sword was *of no use*.

An Attribute to the subject or object of a sentence may be :

(a) An adjective, as : *Little* birds sleep sweetly. I see *twenty* sheep.

(b) An adjectival phrase, as : Birds *of a feather* flock together. Do you see the birds *of prey* ?

(c) A noun in apposition, as : Whang *the miller* was very avaricious. Call John *the boatman*.

(d) A noun or pronoun in the possessive case, as : *John's* horse has come. *His* saddle is ready. See the *sheep's* wool.

(e) A verb in the infinitive, with or without dependent

words, as : A desire *to learn* possessed him. He had a house *to let for six months*.

(f) A participle, with or without dependent words, as : The doctor, *arriving*, took charge of the patient. Richard, *leaving his work*, went to the town. We saw him *walking in the fields*.

An Adverbial Adjunct to the predicate of a sentence may be :

(a) An adverb, as : Come *here*. Go *quickly*.

(b) An adverbial phrase, as : He walks *in the fields*. He works *with vigour*.

(c) A verb in the infinitive, with or without dependent words, as : They have come *to teach us*. We went to the town *to buy*.

(d) A participle, with or without dependent words, as : He went off *running*. They came *riding on horseback*.

(e) A noun in the nominative absolute with its participle, as : *The day having dawned*, we proceeded on our journey.

(f) A noun in the adverbial objective, as : He walked *twenty miles*. They went *some distance*.

The Participial Phrase, that is, the participle with its dependent words, is very extensively used as an adjunct to the predicate.

When the participial phrase simply serves to describe the subject or object or some noun in the sentence, it is an attribute to the subject, object, &c. But when it shows the time, place, manner, or cause of the action, it must be regarded as an adverbial adjunct to the predicate, even when it plainly refers to the subject or object. A participial phrase beginning with a noun or pronoun in the nominative absolute is always of the nature of an adverbial adjunct to the predicate.

When the student has studied the complex sentence, he will understand the rule : That a participial phrase is an attribute to the subject, &c., when it can be replaced by an *adjective clause*, and an adjunct to the predicate when it can be replaced by an *adverbial clause*.

The following are additional examples :

They were hard at work, shearing the sheep.

He was sitting in the porch, talking to his wife.

They sat thus for a long time, not daring to look round.

Obedying her mother's call, the girl ran to the house.

A lapwing's nest lay there hidden amongst the grass.

He sat listening to the song of the birds.

Thus left alone, I leaned against a tree.

Throwing away his gun, the boy climbed a tree.

Being in a great hurry, he missed his aim.

AUXILIARY VERBS

Compare the sentences in the two columns following :

I go.	I shall go.
You speak.	You can speak.
He departed.	He has departed.
They heard.	They might have heard.

The words 'go,' 'speak,' 'departed,' 'heard,' in both columns are verbs, that is, telling-words; but the words 'shall,' 'can,' 'has,' 'might' and 'have' in the second column are also verbs.

Verbs, therefore, may be used alone, as : I *go*. You *speak*. He *departed*. Or two or more verbs may be used together, as : I *shall go*. You *can speak*. They *might have heard*.

Two or more verbs are used together to express an idea more completely. The sentence 'He speaks' is rather indefinite. We may say 'He speaks now'; 'He speaks often'; 'He speaks to-morrow,' and in each case the verb 'speaks' has a slightly different meaning; but if we say 'He is speaking'; 'He has spoken,' the statements are quite definite.

Two or more verbs used together to express an idea more completely form a **Verb-Group**. The significant verb, that is the verb which indicates the nature of the action, is the last. The other verbs *help* to express the idea. They are therefore called **Helping or Auxiliary Verbs**. (The Latin word *auxilium* means 'help'.)

An **Auxiliary Verb** is one which helps another verb to express an idea more completely.

Auxiliary Verbs are of three kinds :

1. Those that indicate the **state** of the action. These are **have** and **be**.
2. Those that indicate the **manner** or **mood** in which the mind views the action. These are **may**, **can**, **must**, **shall**, **will**, **ought**, and sometimes **need** and **dare**.
3. One that indicates the **emphasis** with which the assertion is made. This is **do**.

In a verb-group the first verb shows the time of the action, and takes the inflection, if any, for number and person. The first verb is usually finite, the others are in either the infinitive or the participial form.

THE AUXILIARY VERBS OF ACTION

'HAVE' AND 'BE'

Look at the following sentences :

The boy **is** beating the dog.
 The boy **has** beaten the dog.
 The dog **was** beaten by the boy.

In the first sentence the verb **is** (the third person singular present indicative of the verb **be**) is used along with the present participle of the verb **beat** to show that the action of beating is **in progress**, that it is going on.

In the second sentence the verb **has** is used along with the past or complete participle of the verb **beat** to show that the action is completed or finished or perfect.

In the third sentence the verb **was** (the third person singular past indicative of the verb **be**) is used along with the past participle of the verb **beat** to show that the action was **done to or suffered** by the dog.

The auxiliary verb '**have**' is used with the past participle of another verb to express completed or perfect action.

The auxiliary verb '**be**' is used with the present participle of another verb to express progressive action.

The auxiliary verb '**be**' is used with the past participle of another verb to express passive action, that is action *suffered* by the subject to the verb.

The combination of the auxiliary verb **be** with the past participle of another verb to show that the action is suffered by the subject, instead of being performed by him, is usually called the **Passive Voice**. (The word **voice** means 'way of speaking'.)

Where the subject is the doer of the action, the verb or verbs are said to be in the **Active Voice**. Where the subject is the person or thing acted upon, the verbs are said to be in the **Passive Voice**.

Have may be looked upon as transitive when it is used as an auxiliary. 'He has beaten the dog' was in the oldest English: 'He has the dog beaten.' Its use as an auxiliary to intransitive verbs is a later development. 'He has come' in older English was: 'He is come.'

The auxiliaries **have** and **be** can be used together to indicate progressive action now completed, as: He **has been** writing. They **had been** working.

The auxiliaries **have** and **be** can also be used together to indicate passive action now completed, as : He **has been** beaten.

The use of **be** to indicate progressive action can be combined with its use to indicate passive action, as : The dog **is being** beaten.

The verb **have** takes **has** (instead of **have-s**) in the third person singular of the present indicative, and forms its past tense **had** (instead of **have-d**), but is otherwise regular.

The verb **be** is very irregular.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY AND COPULATIVE VERB BE

INDICATIVE MOOD

<i>Present.</i>			<i>Past.</i>		
Singular.		Plural.	Singular.		Plural.
1. I	am	we	1. I	was	we
2. you	are	you	2. you	were	you
3. he	is	they	3. he	was	they
		} are			} were

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

<i>Present.</i>			<i>Past.</i>		
Singular.		Plural.	Singular.		Plural.
1. I		we	1. I		we
2. you		you	2. you		you
3. he		they	3. he		they
		} be			} were

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Singular.	Plural.
2. be	2. be

INFINITIVE MOOD

to be be being

PARTICIPIAL MOOD

<i>Present or Incomplete.</i>	<i>Past or Complete.</i>
being	been

The remarkable diversity of forms shown by the verb **Be** is due to the fact that its forms are derived from three different roots : (a) the root **ar** or **as** ; (b) the root **war** or **was** ; (c) the root **be**.

In poetical and Biblical English the forms for the second person singular (with 'thou') are **art** in the present indicative, **wast** in the past indicative, and **wert** in the past subjunctive.

EXERCISES

1. *Point out the Auxiliary Verbs of Action in the following sentences, and tell what kind of action they indicate, and what verbs they go with. Take care not to call a verb an auxiliary unless it is followed by another verb.*

I am trying hard to persuade you. Couches were placed all around the room. We were amazed at its size and splendour. I am tired and hungry. I have a knife. He has told the truth. I have heard you talk of them. I was left alone. Many of them were thus put upon a false scent. We have been invited here to a banquet. The room is being prepared. We are being taught. You are teaching us. I am become a name. We were surprised that we had never seen it before. The house was surrounded by a light plantation of trees. They had never seen a hall so splendid. The vessels had been swept from their moorings. Black smoke was pouring from their funnels. The hulls of the ships were tossing about like corks, and the decks were being deluged with water. Several vessels had gone ashore.

2. *Change the following sentences from the Active into the Passive way of speaking, thus : 'I saw them'—'They were seen by me' :*

They took him prisoner. An orphan boy carried his harp. A stranger filled the Stuarts' throne. The people drew a long breath. You helped us. We told you. A passing stranger scooped a well. A dreamer dropped a random thought. Stout Lartius hurled down Aunus into the stream beneath. They still tell the story how well Horatius kept the bridge. They tell me everything. The wind threw the spray high into the air. They needed every man at his post. Several weeks of bad weather had preceded the storm. The howling of the wind aroused many persons. Soon after they buried him, they proposed to erect a monument to his memory.

3. *Change the following sentences from the Passive into the Active way of speaking, or 'Voice' :*

He was struck by an arrow. They were defeated by the enemy. We are scorned by the multitude. The streets are thronged with spectators. He was sought by every one. The cockpit was crowded with wounded and dying men. She is praised by all. You have been warned by many people. The sheep are being shorn. You were told the truth. He was refused admittance. The decks were being deluged with water. Nothing had been told him. The letters are being written by us. The streets were being swept by the scavengers. He was bitten by a venomous serpent.

4. *Write ten sentences of your own in which the following verbs are used actively :*

Accept ; break ; command ; deny ; give ; help ; send ; teach ; write ; beseech.

5. *Write ten sentences of your own in which the same verbs are used passively.*

AN ADDITIONAL FORM OF THE PREDICATE

We have already recognised three forms of the predicate, namely, (1) an intransitive verb ; (2) a transitive verb with its object ; (3) a copulative verb with its complement.

To these we must now add :

(4) A passive verb-group, as : The dog *has been beaten*. The grass *is being mowed*. I *am told*.

A passive verb-group is often followed by an object of action, as : He was seen *to arrive*. She was told *to go*. Rarely by a direct object, as : He was refused *admittance*. She was asked a *question*. They were taught *grammar*.

THE AUXILIARY VERBS OF MOOD

The auxiliary or helping verbs which indicate the manner or mood in which the mind views the verbal action are *may, can, must, shall, will, ought*, and sometimes *need* and *dare*.

When used as auxiliaries, they are followed by the infinitive mood of another verb without 'to' (except *ought*, which is followed by 'to').

May shows that an action is looked upon as *permitted* or *probable*, as : You *may go*. It *may rain*.

Can shows that an action is looked upon as *possible*, as : He *can do it*.

Must shows that an action is looked upon as *the duty* of the subject, as : We *must depart*. You *must tell us*.

Shall in the first person shows that action is looked upon as *future*, that is about to happen, as : We *shall soon return*. *Shall* in the second and third persons shows that action is *resolved* or *determined on by the speaker*, as : You *shall go*. He *shall stay*.

Will in the first person shows that action is *determined on by the speaker*, as : I *will go*. In the second and third persons it shows that action is looked upon simply as *future*, as : I *shall go*, you *will come with me*, and he *will stay*.

Ought expresses *obligation*, as : You ought to help him.

Need expresses *necessity*. It is used as an auxiliary only in negative and interrogative sentences, as : He need not go. Need he do it ?

Dare expresses *boldness*. It is used as an auxiliary only in negative sentences and in the phrase 'I dare say,' as : He dare not show himself.

The auxiliaries of mood are extremely simple in their inflection. They occur (as auxiliaries) only in the indicative and subjunctive moods, and in modern English have the same form for all numbers and persons. The past tense is irregularly formed.

INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE

All Numbers and Persons

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
may	might
can	could
must	must
shall	should
will	would
ought	ought
dare	durst
need	

Must and **ought** are used in the past tense only in indirect speech, as : He said that we must do it. He knew that he ought to go.

In Biblical and poetical English the forms for the second person singular with 'thou' are in the present : **mayest** or **mayst**, **canst**, **must**, **shalt**, **wilt**, **oughtest**, **darest** or **darst**, **needest** or **needst** ; and in the past : **mightest** or **mightst**, **couldst** or **couldst**, **shouldst** or **shouldst**, **wouldst** or **wouldst**.

NOTE.—The verbs **have** and **be** are used as auxiliaries of mood in sentences such as the following : I **have** to speak. I **am** to inform you. He **is** to come. You **are** to go on horseback. In such sentences **have** expresses obligation, and **be** expresses action determined upon by some one other than the subject. In 'If he **were** to come,' the past subjunctive of the verb **be** expresses doubtful future action, just like **should** in 'If he **should** come.'

USE OF 'SHALL' AND 'WILL,' 'SHOULD' AND 'WOULD'

The uses of these auxiliaries may be summarised as follows :

Shall is used :

- (a) In the first person to express future action, as : I shall see you.
- (b) In the first and second persons in asking questions about the future, as : Shall I come ? Shall you go ?
- (c) In the second and third persons to express action that is determined on by the speaker, as : You shall come. He shall obey.
- (d) In the first and third persons in asking questions about action to be determined on by the person spoken to, as : Shall I come ? Shall he send ?

Will is used :

- (a) In the second and third persons to express future action, as : You will see us. He will come with me.
- (b) In the third person in asking questions about the future, as : Will he return soon ?
- (c) In the first person to express action that is determined upon by the speaker, as : I will go.
- (d) In the second person to express action to be determined upon by the person spoken to, as : Will you come ?
- (e) In the second and third person to express habitual action, as : You will interfere. He will drink.

Should is used :

- (a) In the first person to express contingent future action, as : I should soon return.
- (b) In the first and second persons in asking questions in regard to contingent future action, as : Should I see you ? Should you like to ?
- (c) In all persons to express past determination of action by some person or agency other than the subject, as : It was decided that I should go. It was resolved that you should be told. It was determined that the king should be executed.
- (d) In all persons to express action that is obligatory or the duty of the subject, as : We should help the poor. You should go now. He should resign. (Here 'should' = 'ought'.)
- (e) In the subjunctive mood in all persons to express doubtful future action, as : If I should go. If you should go. If he should go.

Would is used :

- (a) In the second and third persons to express contingent action, as : You would come with me. He would await us.
- (b) In the third person in asking a question about contingent action, as : Would he be there ?
- (c) In the first person to express contingent determination, as : I would do it if I were you.
- (d) In all persons to express the past determination of the subject, as : I would, you would, he would go (at that past time referred to).

(e) To express habitual past action, as : He would drink.

(f) In the subjunctive mood in all persons to express willingness on the part of the subject, as : If I, you, he, would speak (i.e. were willing to speak) it would open their eyes.

(g) To express a hopeless wish, as : Would that I had known.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE USE OF 'SHOULD' AND 'WOULD'

She bade her page the menials tell,
That they should tend the old man well.
And would the noble Duchess deign
To listen to an old man's strain ?

If mine had been the painter's hand,
I would have planted thee, thou hoary pile,
Amid a world how different from this !
Thou shouldst have seemed a treasure-house divine
Of peaceful years. So once it would have been.

Milton ! thou shouldst be living at this hour.

The old order changeth, yielding place to new,
And God fulfils Himself in many ways,
Lest one good custom should corrupt the world.

If thou shouldst never see my face again,
Pray for my soul.

Two navies beheld one prize in its glory—the throne of the sea.
Which were bravest, who should tell ? for both were gallant and free.

We sometimes ask ourselves whether we would like to return to such and such an age. Oh ! I should not care to be young again, on condition of being educated as I was ; I should have all the misfortunes I have had : but I would consent with great pleasure to return to the age of four years to have a Walpole for my tutor.

EXERCISE

Point out the Auxiliary Verbs of Mood in the following sentences, and tell what verb each goes with :

I can see no escape. It may be a comfort to us. I will drink life to the lees. You might as well listen to him. Will no one tell me what she sings ? To enjoy mist, you must be in the heart of it. The maiden sang as if her song could have no ending. I could not see how this could be done. She said if I would enter a boat, her joiner should make it. I should have fallen down forty feet, if I had not been stopped. I could see them coming. It may be we shall touch the Happy Isles. The enchantment can never be broken. It seems very strange that we should be left so long without attendance. He would have turned back if it could be done. Not a living soul could they see. It was arranged that they should send back word. You ought not to have gone. I dare not let you go. Need you go so soon ?

THE AUXILIARY VERB OF EMPHASIS

'Do'

Look at these sentences :

I do know.
He did speak.
Do you sing ?
I do not hear.

In the first two sentences the auxiliary verb **do** is used to make the assertion emphatic.

In the third sentence **do** is used to ask a question.

In the fourth sentence **do** is used with the adverb **not** to make a negative statement.

The auxiliary verb *do* is used :

(a) To show that an assertion is made with emphasis, as :
I do know. He does hear. He did speak.

(b) In asking questions, as : Do you sing ? Does he know ?
Did he speak ?

(c) With the adverb *not* in making negative statements, as :
I do not see. You do not know. He did not come.

The auxiliary verb **do** is not used with any other auxiliary, nor is it used with the verb **be** when **be** is principal verb.

Do becomes **does** in the third person singular, and **did** in the past tense, and (as a principal verb) takes **done** in the past participle, but is otherwise regular.

In Biblical and poetical English **do** becomes **dost** as an auxiliary (and **doest** as a principal verb) after **thou** in the second person singular of the present tense, and **didst** in both cases in the past, as : Dost thou not hear ? Thou doest well. Thou didst not regard.

In similar English the third person singular is **doth** as an auxiliary, and **doeth** as a principal verb.

INTERROGATIVE AND NEGATIVE SENTENCES

In asking questions, if there is no other auxiliary, **do is** put before the subject, as: Does he sing? Where do you live?

If there is an auxiliary, the auxiliary is put before the subject, as: Can you come? What are you doing?

When **have** or **be** is used as a principal verb, **it is** put before the subject, as: Have you my book? Is he at home?

In making negative statements, if there is no other auxiliary, **do is** used before **not**, as: You do not know.

If there is an auxiliary, the auxiliary is put before **not**, as: I shall not go. He should not have come.

When **have** or **be** is used as a principal verb, **it is** put before **not**, as: I have not a book. He is not here.

In asking negative questions, **not** is put after the subject, as: Have you not heard? Is he not here? Can you not come? Whom have you not seen?

EXERCISE

Point out the Auxiliary Verbs of Emphasis in the following sentences, and the verbs that they go with:

He does his work well. He does not speak well. Do you hear me? I do know him. I did go with them. You did not know them. Dost thou hear me? What dost thou here? What have you done to it? Do not go. If you do go, return soon. What does he want? They did not come with us. Did not you hear it? What did they say? Didst thou not hear it? Good wishes do not mend bad actions.

PARSING OF AUXILIARY VERBS

He is speaking.

is: verb, copulative, indicative, present, third person singular like its subject 'he,' auxiliary of progressive action to 'speaking.'

speaking: verb, intransitive, present participle after the auxiliary 'is.'

She has spoken.

has: verb, transitive, indicative, present, third person singular like its subject 'she,' auxiliary of perfect action to 'spoken.'

spoken: verb, intransitive, past participle after the auxiliary 'has.'

They were told.

- were :** verb, copulative, indicative, past, third person plural like its subject 'they,' auxiliary of passive action to 'told.'
- told :** verb, transitive, past participle after the auxiliary 'were.'

I am being taught.

- am :** verb, copulative, indicative, present, first person singular like its subject 'I,' auxiliary of progressive action to 'being.'
- being :** verb, copulative, present participle after the auxiliary 'am,' auxiliary of passive action (or of voice) to 'taught.'
- taught :** verb, transitive, past participle after the auxiliary 'being.'

You had been missed.

- had :** verb, transitive, indicative, past, second person singular (or plural) like its subject 'you,' auxiliary of perfect action to 'been.'
- been :** verb, copulative, past participle after the auxiliary 'had,' auxiliary of passive action (or of voice) to 'missed.'
- missed :** verb, transitive, past participle after the auxiliary 'been.'

I shall tell you.

- shall :** verb, transitive, indicative, present, first person singular like its subject 'I,' auxiliary of mood to 'tell.'
- tell :** verb, transitive, infinitive mood after the auxiliary 'shall.'

He would speak.

- would :** verb, transitive, indicative, past, third person singular like its subject 'he,' auxiliary of mood to 'speak.'
- speak :** verb, intransitive, infinitive mood after the auxiliary 'would.'

They might have told us.

- might :** verb, transitive, indicative, past, third person plural like its subject 'they,' auxiliary of mood to 'have.'
- have :** verb, transitive, infinitive mood after the auxiliary 'might,' auxiliary of perfect action to 'told.'
- told :** verb, transitive, past participle after the auxiliary 'have.'

He does learn. You do not know him.

- does :** verb, transitive, indicative, present, third person singular like its subject 'he,' auxiliary of emphasis to 'learn.'
- learn :** verb, intransitive, infinitive mood after the auxiliary 'does.'
- do :** verb, transitive, indicative, present, second person singular like its subject 'you,' auxiliary of emphasis to 'know.'
- know :** verb, transitive, infinitive mood after the auxiliary 'do.'

Forms like cannot, shan't, won't, don't, may be parsed as Negative Forms of the auxiliary verbs.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES CONTAINING AUXILIARIES

In analysing such sentences it is most convenient to take the auxiliaries along with the principal verb as forming the predicate, or the verbal part of the predicate. Thus :

Spring	<i>subject</i>
is coming.	<i>predicate.</i>

They	<i>subject</i>
have been playing.	<i>predicate.</i>

His parents	<i>subject</i>
had been told.	<i>predicate.</i>

Where there is an object or a complement, we may speak of the verbal part of the predicate as the predicate verb-group, or simply as the predicate verbs. Thus :

They	<i>subject</i>
may have found	<i>predicate verbs</i>
a better way.	<i>object.</i>

He	<i>subject</i>
is becoming	<i>predicate verbs</i>
tall.	<i>complement.</i>

It would, of course, be quite correct to analyse the infinitives which follow auxiliaries of mood as the objects to these auxiliaries, and to analyse the participles which follow the auxiliary 'be' as complements. Thus in 'I can go,' 'go' is the object of the verb 'can,' and in 'He is speaking,' 'speaking' is the complement to the verb 'is.' But it would not be so convenient to analyse them in this way, because these infinitives and participles usually have objects or complements and adjuncts of their own, and it would be cumbersome to treat these latter fully, and difficult to treat them clearly, if they were regarded as objects and adjuncts to what is itself an object or a complement.

FORMS OF ADJECTIVES

THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE DEGREES

Look at the adjectives in the following sentences :

This is a tall tree.
 This other is taller.
 But that is the tallest of all.

The word 'tall' in the first sentence describes a quality of the tree ; the word 'taller' in the second sentence describes a

higher degree of the same quality ; the word 'tallest' in the third sentence describes the highest degree of the quality.

The higher degree of the quality is indicated by adding **er** to the simple form of the adjective ; and the highest degree of the quality is indicated by adding **est**.

In the same way we can say : **few** persons ; **fewer** persons ; the **fewest** persons possible. Here the inflections **er** and **est** indicate degrees of number.

We can say also : **much** corn ; **more** corn ; the **most** corn. Here the adjective **much** is inflected irregularly to indicate the degree of quantity.

Adjectives are inflected to indicate the degree in which a quality is possessed, or a number or quantity is present.

The form of an adjective which indicates a higher degree of a quality or quantity is called the **Comparative Degree**.

The form of an adjective which indicates the highest degree of a quality or quantity is called the **Superlative Degree**.

In relation to the Comparative and Superlative Degrees, the simple form of an adjective is called the **Positive Degree**.

The Comparative Degree is usually formed by adding **er** to the simple form of the adjective, as : A greater number were present.

The Superlative Degree is usually formed by adding **est** to the simple form of the adjective, as : It was the greatest number ever known.

Before the inflections **er** and **est**, final **e** is dropped, as : large, larger, largest ; final **y** is changed into **i**, as : happy, happi-**er**, happi-**est** ; and a single consonant following a short accented vowel is doubled, as : red, red-**der**, red-**dest**.

Adjectives of two or more syllables are not, as a rule, inflected for comparison. In the case of such adjectives, a higher and the highest degree of a quality are expressed by prefixing the adverbs **more** and **most** to the adjective, as : a beautiful house ; a **more** beautiful house ; the **most** beautiful house.

Adjectives of two syllables ending in **er**, **ow**, and **le**, as well as those ending in **y**, are inflected for comparison. Such are : shallow, hollow, tender, slender, noble, gentle, pretty, merry. Also adjectives accented on the last syllable, such as : polite, genteel.

Adjectives which from their meaning express the highest possible degree of a quality are not compared. Such are : round, square, eternal, infinite, perfect, continual, universal, infallible, dead, living, left, right.

ADJECTIVES COMPARED IRREGULARLY

Many adjectives are irregular in the formation of the Comparative, and still more of the Superlative, Degree. The following is a list of such adjectives with their inflections. It will be observed that many of them form the Superlative by adding **most** to the Positive or to the Comparative form of the adjective.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	less	least
much	more	most
many	more	most
far	farther	farthest
(forth)	further	furthest
nigh	nigher	nighest and next
fore	former	foremost and first
late	later and latter	latest and last
old	older and elder	oldest and eldest
(in)	inner	inmost and innermost
(out)	outer	outmost, utmost, outermost
hind	hinder	hindmost and hindermost
(up)	upper	upmost and uppermost
low	lower	lowest and lowermost.

Better and best are derived from an old adjective *bet*, meaning good. Worse and worst are derived from an old adjective *weor*, meaning bad. Worse and worst also serve as comparative and superlative to the adjectives *evil* and *ill*.

Nighest refers to distance, next to order. Later and latest refer to time; latter and last to order. Elder and eldest are used in speaking of persons; older and oldest in speaking of animals and things. Elder and eldest are only used as attributes, not as predicates, as : John is an elder brother; but: John is older than James.

The words *forth*, *in*, *out*, *up* are no longer used as adjectives in the positive form, unless in compound words like *inside*, *outside*.

ADJECTIVES INFLECTED FOR NUMBER

The only adjectives which are inflected for number are the adjectives *this* and *that*, of which the plural forms are *these* and *those*, as : *this* horse, *these* horses ; *that* hill, *those* hills.

FULL PARSING OF ADJECTIVES

This house is better than that. Which is the tallest of those boys? He had much influence and more money than most of us.

This : adjective of distinction, to the noun 'house.'

better : adjective of quality, comparative degree, predicate to the noun 'house.'

that : adjective of distinction, to the noun 'house' understood.

which : interrogative adjective of distinction, to the noun 'boy' understood.

tallest : adjective of quality, superlative degree, to the noun 'boy' understood.

those : adjective of distinction, plural number, to the noun 'boys.'

much : adjective of quantity, positive degree, to the noun 'influence.'

more : adjective of quantity, comparative degree, to the noun 'money.'

most : adjective of number, superlative degree, to a noun understood.

EXERCISES

1. *Compare the following adjectives, that is, write them in the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative Forms :*

Tame ; fierce ; great ; small ; broad ; narrow ; shallow ; deep ; strong ; weak ; early ; late ; far ; near ; good ; bad ; many ; few ; costly ; cheap ; much ; little ; red ; yellow ; old ; young ; busy ; lazy ; out ; in ; up ; forth ; tender ; slender ; polite ; genteel.

2. *How is comparison expressed in the case of the following adjectives ?*

Wonderful ; horrible ; fragrant ; dangerous ; remarkable ; melancholy.

3. *Why are the following adjectives not susceptible of comparison ?*

Perfect ; supreme ; extreme ; impossible ; almighty ; infinite ; right ; wrong ; square ; round ; golden ; wooden ; French ; English.

4. *Point out the adjectives in the following sentences, and tell the degree of comparison in each case :*

The noblest thing that perished there was that young, faithful heart. Now abide Faith, Hope, and Love, but the greatest of these is Love. Our sweetest songs are those that tell of saddest thought. He went on his way a sadder and a wiser man. The darkest hour is just before the dawn. He had more money than most of us. Wisdom is better than riches. He was the tallest of his family. Few and short were the prayers we said. He has much skill and still more sense. The sweetest thing that ever grew beside a cottage door. When the oldest cask is opened, and the largest lamp is lit. He stood on the farther shore. The days grew longer and longer, till they became as one. The dun deer's hide on fleetest feet was never tied.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Look at the following sentences :

The boy ran fast.
The dog ran faster.
The horse ran fastest of all

He lives near.
They live nearer.
You live nearest.

I come often.
You come oftener.
He comes oftenest.

We see from these examples that adverbs are inflected for comparison in the same way as adjectives.

The adverbs that are inflected are those that denote time, place, and manner.

The comparative degree indicates a higher degree of specification of the time, place, or manner of the verbal action, and the superlative degree indicates the highest degree of such specification, as : You came soon ; he came sooner ; she came soonest of all.

In adverbs, as in adjectives, the comparative degree is formed by adding *er*, and the superlative degree by adding *est*, as : hard, hard-*er*, hard-*est* ; loud, loud-*er*, loud-*est* ; long, long-*er* ; long-*est*.

The dissyllabic adverbs which are usually inflected in this way are often, seldom, and early, as : often, often-*er*, often-*est* ; early, earli-*er*, earli-*est*.

In the case of other dissyllables, the adverbs more and most are used with the adverbs of time, place, or manner to indicate a higher or the highest degree of specification.

The words far, forth, much, little, nigh are inflected in the same way when adverbs as they are when adjectives ; as : far, farther, farthest ; much, more, most ; nigh, nigher, nighest or next. Late takes the forms later and last.

The adverbs badly and ill take the forms worse and worst in the comparative and superlative, and the adverb well takes the forms better and best.

NOTE.—An adverb often modifies a phrase or a clause, as in the following sentences, in which the adverbs modify the phrases which follow them :

He jumped right across the room. She could see quite to the bottom of the well. They left just as we came to the spot. Long before they came to the wood, he overtook them. I have liked you ever since I knew you.

An adverb is often modified by a phrase, as in the following, in which the adverbs are themselves modified by the phrases which follow them :

All went well save for one thing. He saw no chance of escape except through the window. We could hear nothing because of the noise.

The word 'there' is very frequently used as an introductory adverb in sentences in which the verb precedes the subject, such as the following :—

There was no one else there. There was no chance of escape. There are more people now than ever. There were hundreds of people at work. There is a tide in the affairs of men. There came a frost, a deadly frost.

FULL PARSING OF ADVERBS

They immediately departed. We went out. He ran fast. They ran faster. The dog went fastest of all. Her voice is remarkably sweet. He speaks exceedingly well.

immediately :	adverb of time, to the verb 'departed.'
out :	adverb of place, to the verb 'went.'
fast :	adverb of manner, to the verb 'ran.'
faster :	adverb of manner, comparative degree, to the verb 'ran.'
fastest :	adverb of manner, superlative degree, to the verb 'went.'
remarkably :	adverb of degree, to the adjective 'sweet.'
exceedingly :	adverb of degree, to the adverb 'well.'
well	adverb of manner, to the verb 'speaks.'

EXERCISE

Parse the adverbs in the following sentences :

He comes oftener than I could wish. They go there seldom than ever. He arrived earlier than usual. The shot fell nearer than before. We are here to see who can shoot an arrow farthest. They died most nobly. She ran faster than ever. He played worse than he had played on the previous occasion. It was the worst equipped regiment in the whole army. Fiercely ran the current. Fast his blood was flowing. Her success is the more remarkable. Your story is most strange. If we look wider, things are all alike. The flames rose higher and higher. How can man die better than facing fearful odds ? Fire that is closest kept burns most of all. The Rhine is running deep and wide. Captain ! the shells are falling fast, and faster still fall we. Up and down they went, backwards and forwards, now fast, now slow. Perhaps I shall soon feel better. It happened long ago. He could see men bustling to and fro.

USE OF PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions are followed by the objective case of nouns or pronouns.

Prepositions are often said to *govern* the objective case because the same forms of nouns and pronouns are used after them as are used after transitive verbs.

The prepositions *in*, *at*, *into* require special attention.

In and *at* are used in speaking of things at rest, as : He is *in* the house. He is *at* the farm.

In is used specially in reference to countries and large towns, as : He dwells *in* Germany. They live *in* London. *At* is used in reference to small towns and villages, as : He stays *at* Dover. His home is *at* Bromley.

To and *into* are used in speaking of things in motion, as : We went *into* the room. He journeyed *to* London.

To is omitted before the noun *home*. Thus we say : He lives *at* home ; he comes *from* home ; but : he goes *home*.

On is preferably used in speaking of things at rest, and upon of things in motion, as : It lay *on* the table. The cat jumped *upon* the table.

To is used of place, till of time, as : He came *to* this house. He waited till four o'clock.

Many English words can only be used correctly along with particular prepositions. The following sentences illustrate some of those in regard to which mistakes are most frequently made.

I *acquiesce in* your decision. That would *alienate* you from your friends. I am *averse from* that course of action. The prize was *bestowed upon* the worthiest. Your explanation is not *compatible with* the facts. The land is *deficient in* moisture. That would *derogate from* your authority. It would be *derogatory to* your position. This one is quite *different from* the other. He is *eager in* the pursuit of wealth. He was *endowed with* many talents. They were *expert at* their trade. He *inculcated upon* us our duties. He is *independent of* help, and *indifferent to* censure. Sorrow is *inseparable from* sin. I must *insist upon* your fulfilling your promise. These facts *mitigate against* his success. He had a great *prejudice against* foreigners. This is *prejudicial to* our interests. In *pursuance of* his desire. I *rejoice at* your success. *Rejoice with* them that rejoice. I *rely upon* your judgment. Light of true happiness, *replete with* love. Do not *swerve from* the path of right. I *sympathise with* you in your sorrow. He *triumphed over* all his foes. He was *versed in* all the wiles of deceit.

FULL PARSING OF PREPOSITIONS

He was a man of mark. We were in great danger.

of : a preposition to the noun 'mark,' forming with it an adjectival phrase to the noun 'man.'

in : a preposition to the noun 'danger,' forming with it an adverbial phrase to the verb 'were.'

EXERCISE

Parse the prepositions in the above exercise in the manner indicated.

ANALYSIS OF A SIMPLE SENTENCE

Take the following sentence :

Early the next year the whole tribe built a great house on the top of the hill for the king's use.

We can analyse such a sentence in various ways according to the time at our disposal, or the amount of detail required.

Thus, we can analyse it simply into **subject and predicate** :

The whole tribe	<i>subject</i>
built a great house on	<i>predicate.</i>
the top of the hill for	
the king's use early	
the next year.	

Or we can analyse it into **subject, predicate, and adjuncts** :

The whole tribe	<i>subject</i>
built a great house	<i>predicate</i>
on the top of the hill	<i>adjunct of place</i>
for the king's use	<i>adjunct of purpose</i>
early the next year.	<i>adjunct of time.</i>

Or we may distinguish between the **verb of the predicate and its object** :

The whole tribe	<i>subject</i>
built	<i>predicate verb</i>
a great house	<i>object</i>
on the top of the hill	<i>adjunct of place</i>
&c.	<i>&c.</i>

Or, finally, we may distinguish between the **subject proper and its attributes**, and in the same way between the **object proper and its attributes** :

Tribe	<i>subject</i>
the whole	<i>attributes to the subject</i>
built	<i>predicate verb</i>
house	<i>object</i>
a great	<i>attributes to the object</i>
on the top of the hill	<i>adjunct of place</i>
for the king's use	<i>adjunct of purpose</i>
early the next year.	<i>adjunct of time.</i>

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS

(a) The boy's father has just given him a new knife.

Father	<i>subject</i>
the boy's	<i>attribute to the subject</i>
has given	<i>predicate verbs</i>
him	<i>object, indirect</i>
knife	<i>object, direct</i>
a new	<i>attributes to direct object</i>
just.	<i>adjunct of time.</i>

(b) They elected him president of the state.

They	<i>subject</i>
elected	<i>predicate verb</i>
him	<i>object</i>
president	<i>objective complement</i>
of the state.	<i>attribute to complement.</i>

(c) Next day the young man was appointed chief in place of his father.

Man	<i>subject</i>
the young	<i>attribute to the subject</i>
was appointed	<i>predicate verbs</i>
chief	<i>complement</i>
in place of his father	<i>adjunct of place</i>
next day.	<i>adjunct of time.</i>

(d) You can hear him swing his heavy sledge, with measured beat and slow.

You	<i>subject</i>
can hear	<i>predicate verbs</i>
him	<i>object, direct</i>
swing his heavy sledge	<i>object, of action.</i>
with measured beat	
and slow.	

(e) The most patient people grow weary at last with being continually wetted with rain.

People	<i>subject</i>
the most patient	<i>attributes to the subject</i>
grow	<i>predicate verb</i>
weary	<i>complement</i>
at last	<i>adjunct of time</i>
with being continually	<i>adjunct of cause.</i>
wetted with rain.	

EXERCISES

1. *Analyse the following sentences into subject and predicate:*

The horses neighed. The panting herds repose. This relieved his thirst. A spirit haunts the year's last hours. A fair little girl sat under a tree. Such a number of rooks came over her head. A strange shadow suddenly came across the sky. Adown the glen came armed men.

2. *Analyse the following into subject, predicate, and adjuncts:*

Oft I had heard of Lucy Gray. I chatter over stony ways in little sharps and trebles. Slowly and sadly we laid him down. The boy stood on the burning deck. Wide through the margin of his dream, the lordly Niger flowed. Then, at furious speed, he rode along the Niger's banks. Before him, like a blood-red flag, the bright flamingoes flew.

3. *Analyse the following into subject, predicate verb, object, and adjuncts (if any):*

This relieved his thirst. An hour's repose soon recruited his weary frame. Britannia needs no bulwarks. Church-going bells begin their low melodious din. A nightingale made a mistake. She sang a few notes out of tune. The fisherman forsook the strand. The falconer tossed his hawk away. The little boat soon reached the shore.

4. *Analyse the following sentences as fully as possible:*

The tall pink foxglove bowed his head. Good little Lucy tied up her hair. A spirit haunts the year's last hours. He resumed his laborious journey. We heard a strange story to-day. My views have since then undergone a considerable change. The birds are all singing to welcome the light. Once upon a time a number of cattle came out of the desert to settle in the broad meadows by the river. Level lines of dewy mist lay stretched along the valley. A strange shadow had suddenly come across the blue sky. The sound of the cataracts sounded like mockery in his ears. The wretched parents all that night went shouting far and wide. To seek thee did I often rove through woods and on the green. Oft on the dappled turf at ease I sit. Beside the ungathered rice he lay, his sickle in his hand. We buried him darkly at dead of night, the sods with our bayonets turning. Like leviathans afloat lay their bulwarks on the brine.

5. *Analyse also the following:*

They refused any reward. Reeds and willows bordered the stream. A barge went past laden with hay. A crowd of children followed cheering. Here and there was a pleasant village among trees. We all got very friendly together. We ceased reading entirely. The names of places are singularly inviting. The rain began heavy and chill. It was cheerfuller to face the other way. People loitered on the quay, some fishing, some looking idly at the stream. Every man is his own doctor of divinity in the last resort. My doubts were not of long duration. He spoke to us very fluently. The canal was busy enough. The atmosphere after the rain was of enchanting purity. On either hand were shadowy orchards. The river was swollen with the long rains. On the other side of the valley a group of red roofs showed among the foliage.

COMPLEX SENTENCES

Look at the following sentences :

He promised that he would come.

The man who spoke to you is a stranger.

The army marched when the sun rose.

In the first sentence the main thing said is 'that he promised something.' The principal verb of the sentence is 'promised.'

In the second sentence the main thing said is that 'the man is a stranger.' The principal verb of the sentence is 'is.'

In the third sentence the main thing said is that 'the army marched.' The principal verb of the sentence is 'marched.'

But besides the principal verb each sentence contains another verb with a subject of its own, which makes a statement dependent on the main statement.

In the first sentence the dependent part is 'that he would come.'

In the second sentence it is 'who spoke to you.'

In the third sentence it is 'when the sun rose.'

Sentences of this kind which contain dependent clauses are called Complex Sentences.

A Complex Sentence is one which, besides the principal verb of the sentence, contains a dependent clause with a finite verb of its own.

A Dependent Clause is a part of a sentence, containing a subject and predicate of its own, which is dependent on some other part of the sentence.

A dependent clause in a complex sentence is often called 'a subordinate clause.'

The word 'subordinate' means 'of lower rank or order.' When a sentence contains two clauses of equal rank, as : 'The men danced and the children played,' they are said to be 'co-ordinate'—a word meaning 'of equal rank or order.'

The dependent clause may form any part of the sentence except the verb. Thus it may be :

- (a) The Subject, as : *What you say* is quite true.
- (b) The Object, as : I know *that he will come*.
- (c) The Complement, as : He is *what you told me*.
- (d) An Attribute, as : The man *that was here* has gone.
- (e) An Adjunct, as : He lives *where he can*.

A dependent clause may, accordingly, do the work of a noun, of an adjective, or of an adverb.

Hence there are three kinds of dependent clauses, the Noun Clause, the Adjective Clause, and the Adverbial Clause.

THE NOUN CLAUSE

A Noun Clause is a dependent clause which does the work of a noun, as : I know *that he will come*.

The Noun Clause may be the subject, the object, or the complement of the whole sentence ; or it may stand in apposition to some noun or pronoun in the sentence ; or it may be the object to some infinitive, participle, or preposition in the sentence. Thus it is used :

- (a) As the Subject : *That you should think so* is strange.
- (b) As the Object : We do not know *when they will come*.
- (c) As the Complement : The fact is *that you have come too late*.
- (d) In apposition to a noun : The fact *that you say so* is enough.
- (e) In apposition to the pronoun 'it' : It is believed *that they did it*.
- (f) As the object to an infinitive : He wishes to know *what you think*.
- (g) As the object to a participle : *Knowing that you would follow*, I started on my journey.
- (h) As the object to a preposition : I am ignorant of *how you did it*.

EXERCISES

1. Point out the Noun Clauses in the following, and say how each is used :

He thinks I am like him. I know where I will go. He earns whate'er he can. You say the sun shines bright. He knew not that the chieftain lay unconscious of his son. I cannot see what flowers are at my feet. I trow they did not part in scorn. I will know if there be any faith in man. That you have wronged me doth appear in this. The fact is that he is quite incompetent. They suddenly received the intelligence that

their father had been taken seriously ill. That is why living on in this way is such an unsatisfactory sort of thing. He had expressed a wish that they should return. It soon became evident that the wolves would overtake our horses. I understand from our friend that he had an interview with you to-day.

2. *Attach Noun Clauses to the verbs of the following sentences :*

I know . . . We thought . . . He promised . . . She said . . . You heard . . . They were told . . .

3. *Write Noun Clauses in apposition to the nouns in the following :*

The idea is new. The opinion is growing. The fact is undoubted. The thought is new. The belief is wide-spread. He has the idea. He holds the opinion. He had a firm conviction.

4. *Write Noun Clauses in apposition to the pronoun 'it' in the following :*

It is strange . . . It is said . . . It is currently believed . . . It is reported . . . It frequently happens . . . It may be said . . . It is incredible . . . It might be thought . . .

5. *Write Noun Clauses as subjects to the following predicates :*

. . . is strange. . . is nothing new. . . is currently reported. . . is quite true. . . is incredible. . . is indubitable. . . is well known.

THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

An Adjective Clause is a dependent clause which does the work of an adjective, as : The dog *which you gave me* is lost.

The Adjective Clause may qualify the subject, the object, or the complement of the whole sentence, or any noun in the sentence. Thus it is used :

(a) To qualify the Subject : The noblest thing *which perished there* was that young faithful heart.

(b) To qualify the Object : I have a little shadow *which goes in and out with me*.

(c) To qualify the Complement : It was the schooner Hesperus *that sailed the wintry sea*.

(d) To qualify some other noun : A king sat on the rocky brow *that looks o'er sea-born Salamis*.

EXERCISES

1. *Point out the Adjective Clauses in the following sentences, and tell what words they qualify :*

The boy stood on the burning deck whence all but he had fled. The flame, that lit the battle's wreck, shone round him o'er the dead. The

noblest thing which perished there was that young faithful heart. At daybreak on the hill they stood that overlooked the moor. A king sat on the rocky brow which looks o'er sea-born Salamis. Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot o'er the grave where our hero we buried. We heard the distant and random gun that the foe was sullenly firing. From morn till night he followed their flight o'er plains where the tamarind grew. The storm was rendered memorable by the wonderful feat of skill and daring by which the British captain saved his vessel from destruction. The natives ran into the surf far beyond the point where a white man could have lived. The savage forgot the wrongs which a civilised people had inflicted upon him. The place was surrounded by steep and rocky mountains, rising into peaks, which were always covered with snow, and from which a number of torrents descended in constant cataracts.

2. *Attach Adjective Clauses to the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences :*

The boy . . . sat down. The girl . . . ran away. The man . . . has returned. The woman . . . took ill. The horse . . . ran off. The cow . . . is sick. The dog . . . is handsome. I know the book . . . I have the knife . . . Do you see the present . . . ? He . . . is gone. She . . . is married. We . . . were present.

THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

An Adverbial Clause is a dependent clause which does the work of an adverb, as : He will come *when he has done his work*.

The Adverbial Clause is usually an adjunct to the predicate verb, but it may modify any verb, adjective, or adverb in the sentence.

Adverbial Clauses express ideas of Time, Place, Manner, or Cause, and also ideas of Condition, Purpose, and Degree.

(a) Time : Where wilt thou go *when all the fields are buried in snow ?*

(b) Place : Few, few shall part *where many meet*.

(c) Manner : They fought *as brave men fight*.

(d) Cause : I know *because you told me*.

(e) Condition : He constantly loved me *although I was poor*. *If anything is lost he can find it*. *If he should come we would be glad*. *Had I known you were here I would have sent for you*.

(f) Purpose : He spent much time *over the work that he might do it well*. *Beware lest you get hurt*.

(g) Degree : The work was so hard *that he could not complete it*. *There was such a crowd that we could see nothing*.

Adverbial clauses of degree are usually preceded either by **so** or **such**, as in the above examples, or by an adjective or adverb in the comparative degree, as: They came sooner *than we expected*. The crowd was larger *than I had ever seen before*. *The more you try the easier it becomes*.

EXERCISES

1. Point out the Adverbial Clauses in the following, classify them, and tell what words they modify :

When Spring comes back with cheerful rain, my joyful song you will hear again. I see him jump before me, when I jump into my bed. When she came back again, her friends were all gone. The stag at eve had drunk his fill, where danced the moon on Monan's rill. Talk not of grief till thou hast seen the tears of warlike men. What time the daisy decks the green, thy certain voice we hear. And when I crossed the wild, I chanced to see, at break of day, the solitary child. No sooner had they set sail than they were almost out of sight. He sometimes gets so little that there's none of him at all. Where the bee sucks, there suck I. I shall return as soon as ever I can. He was afraid of punishment because he had neglected his duty.

2. Attach Adverbial Clauses to the verbs in the following sentences :

She left the room. They were much alarmed. He lives. He returned. We shall have no more trouble. I should have gone elsewhere. The boy was punished. They are still standing. It happened thus. He studies hard. Beware. I did not see him. I shall see him.

3. Attach Adverbial Clauses to the adverbs of degree in the following :

She ran so fast. He works so hard. The more I wish to know. He did it so badly. She is as beautiful. She spoke so low. The wider is the view. He worked harder. The dog ran faster. She plays more sweetly.

4. Attach Adverbial Clauses to the adjectives in the following :

He is taller. She is older. The place was farther. He is such a thief. They are such cowards. He is such a scholar. I am sure. He is vexed. I am sorry. They are aware. We feel certain.

CONNECTIVES OF DEPENDENT CLAUSES

The connectives of dependent clauses are of three kinds :

(a) Relative Pronouns, as: The boy *who* told me has gone. This is the house in *which* he lived. This is the house *that* Jack built.

(b) Relative (or Conjunctive) Adverbs, as: I know *where* he lives. *When* he comes I shall let you know. Come as soon *as* you can.

(c) Subordinative Conjunctions, as: I know *that* you will come. He is poor *though* he works so hard. I love him *because* he is good.

The connective, when a relative pronoun or a relative adverb, forms an essential part of the dependent clause such as subject, object, or adjunct.

The connective, when a relative pronoun is often omitted, as: The man you mentioned has not appeared. That is the house I spoke of. Tell me everything you know.

PARTS OF A SENTENCE

VIII.—ADDITIONAL FORMS OF THE SUBJECT, &c.

We have already seen (p. 67) that **the subject** of a sentence may be (a) a noun; (b) a pronoun; (c) an adjective qualifying a noun not expressed; (d) a verb in the infinitive.

We can now add that the subject of a sentence may be:

(e) **A Noun Clause**, as: *Why he came* is a mystery.
That they are happy is evident.

We have seen also that **the object** to a transitive verb in the sentence may consist of the same elements as the subject.

We can now add that the object of a sentence may be:

(f) **A Noun Clause**, as: I know *that you will do it*. He told me *where you were*.

We have already seen that **the complement** to a copulative verb may be (a) a noun; (b) a pronoun; (c) an infinitive; (d) an adjective; (e) an adjectival phrase.

We can now add that the complement may be:

(f) **A Noun Clause**, as: The truth is *that I was mistaken*.

We have already seen that **an attribute** to the subject or object of a sentence may be: (a) an adjective; (b) an adjectival phrase; (c) a noun in apposition; (d) a noun or pronoun in the possessive case; (e) a verb in the infinitive; (f) a participle.

We can now add that **an attribute** to the subject or object may be:

(g) **An Adjective Clause**, as: The man *who has just left* is my father. I know a bank *whereon the wild thyme blows*.

We have already seen that **an adverbial adjunct** to the predicate of a sentence may be: (a) an adverb; (b) an adverbial phrase; (c) a verb in the infinitive; (d) a participle; (e) a noun in the nominative absolute with its participle; (f) an adverbial objective.

We can now add that **an adverbial adjunct** to the predicate may be:

(g) **An Adverbial Clause**, as: They left *before we arrived*. He did the work as well *as he could*.

ANALYSIS OF A COMPLEX SENTENCE

In analysing a complex sentence we must first analyse the sentence as a whole, and then the dependent clause by itself.

It is convenient in writing down the sentence to mark the beginning and end of the dependent clause by a number, as :
I know ¹that he will come¹.

The following are examples of the analysis of complex sentences containing one dependent clause :

A. You promised me ¹that you would come to-day¹. *Complex Sentence.*

You	<i>subject</i>
promised	<i>predicate verb</i>
me	<i>object, indirect</i>
that you would come to-day.	<i>object, direct.</i>

1. That you would come to-day. *Noun Clause, object to 'promised.'*

That	<i>connective</i>
you	<i>subject</i>
would come	<i>predicate</i>
to-day.	<i>adjunct of time.</i>

B. The flame ¹that lit the battle's wreck¹ shone round him o'er the dead. *Complex Sentence.*

The flame	<i>subject</i>
that lit the battle's wreck	<i>attribute to the subject</i>
shone	<i>predicate</i>
round him	<i>adjunct of place</i>
o'er the dead.	<i>do. do.</i>

1. That lit the battle's wreck. *Adjective Clause to 'flame.'*

That	<i>subject and connective</i>
lit	<i>predicate verb</i>
the battle's wreck.	<i>object.</i>

C. The stag at eve had drunk his fill ¹where danced the moon on Monan's rill¹. *Complex Sentence.*

The stag	<i>subject</i>
had drunk	<i>predicate verbs</i>
his fill	<i>object</i>
at eve	<i>adjunct of time</i>
where danced the moon on	<i>adjunct of place.</i>
Monan's rill.	

1. Where danced the moon on Monan's rill. *Adverbial Clause to 'had drunk.'*

Where	<i>connective and adjunct of place</i>
the moon	<i>subject</i>
danced	<i>predicate</i>
on Monan's rill.	<i>adjunct of place</i>

The form of analysis shown in the following examples is recommended as being at once concise and complete. The dependent clause is represented in its place in the analysis of the whole sentence by its first word or words, and is then analysed in detail by itself.

A. The shepherd still lived humbly in the little cottage ¹ which he had inherited from his father.¹

B. His old schoolmaster asked him ¹ if, with such perfect health, he was really poor.¹

C. Would you let me cut off your strong right hand ¹ if I were to offer you a thousand pounds ? ¹

	Kind of Sentence or Clause.	Sentence and Clause Divided.	Names of Parts.
A.	<i>Complex Sentence</i>	The shepherd lived still humbly in the little cottage which, &c.	<i>subject</i> <i>predicate</i> <i>adjunct of time</i> <i>adjunct of manner</i> <i>adjunct of place.</i>
I.	1. <i>Adjective Clause</i> to 'cottage' in A.	He had inherited which from his father.	<i>subject</i> <i>predicate verbs</i> <i>object and conn.</i> <i>adjunct of place.</i>
B.	<i>Complex Sentence</i>	Schoolmaster his old asked him if, with, &c.	<i>subject</i> <i>attributes to subject</i> <i>predicate verb</i> <i>object, direct</i> <i>object, indirect.</i>
I.	1. <i>Noun Clause</i> object to 'asked' in B.	If he was poor really with such perfect health.	<i>connective</i> <i>subject</i> <i>predicate</i> <i>adjunct of manner</i> <i>adjunct of manner.</i>
C.	<i>Complex sentence</i>	You would let me cut off your strong right hand if I, &c.	<i>subject</i> <i>predicate verbs</i> <i>object, direct</i> <i>object of action</i> <i>adjunct of condition.</i>
I.	1. <i>Adverbial Clause</i> to 'would let' in C.	If I were to offer you a thousand pounds.	<i>connective</i> <i>subject</i> <i>predicate verbs</i> <i>object, indirect</i> <i>object, direct.</i>

EXERCISES

1. *Analyse the sentences in the three preceding exercises dealing with the Noun Clause, the Adjective Clause, and the Adverbial Clause.*

2. *Analyse also the following :*

Here there was a rude and dirty bed on which I flung myself, exhausted with fatigue. I thought I was surrounded by difficulties of all kinds. Who I am matters little. It is you that I want. Through this crowd the figure whom I have attempted to describe pushed his way with an air of authority. Wondering what all this could mean, I attended my strange conductor down the street. As we proceeded, the crowd increased every moment. Even the sick were brought to the doors to obtain a view of what was going forward. Our glances rested upon the figure who held watch at the door. It appears to me that after all he may prove an Englishman. I felt that there was a good deal of justice in some of these remarks. I was aware that I had committed a great imprudence in coming among this barbarous people. His reception might well encourage him to hope that his enterprise would have a prosperous issue. The people boasted that they lived in a land flowing with milk and honey. The lady who headed the procession presented him with a small Bible of great price. While he was wavering between projects equally hopeless, the King's forces came in sight. Orders were given that strict silence should be observed. Where ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise. Happy the man whose wish and care a few paternal acres bound.

And here were gardens bright with sinuous rills
Where blossom'd many an incense-bearing tree.
And there were forests ancient as the hills,
Enfolding sunny spots of greenery.

The less I saw of him the better I liked him. It was in vain that I warned him. In vain I told him that boys were the most dangerous creatures. He did all that he could. They admitted that they were wrong. What would happen when the wind first caught my little canvas ? His ears drink in whatever certain people may tell him. His eyes are blind to facts that stare him in the face. Cranks thrive most where the real problems of life are least insistent. The boy was thinking about the cruel words that had been spoken in school about his ragged clothes. He did not wish anyone to see that he had been crying. After his teacher had shown him how to arrange the flowers, he took them to the town to be sold. In olden times when animals still could speak, elephants had no trunks. At this time there lived somewhere in Africa a young elephant which was very inquisitive. He asked his relatives one day what crocodiles got for dinner. They at last suggested that he should go to ask them himself.

COMPLEX SENTENCES WITH TWO DEPENDENT CLAUSES

Look at the following sentences :

The man ¹who was here yesterday¹ told us ²that he was a sailor².
The boy told us ¹that he would come as soon ²as he could²¹.

In the first sentence the dependent clause 'who was here yesterday' depends upon the noun 'man,' the subject of the whole sentence, and the dependent clause 'that he was a sailor' is the object to 'told' the predicate verb of the whole sentence.

In the second sentence the dependent clause 'that he would come as soon as he could' is the object to 'told,' the predicate verb of the whole sentence, and contains within it a second dependent clause 'as he could,' which is dependent on the adverb of degree 'as' before 'soon.'

The following are examples of the analysis of sentences containing two dependent clauses, one of which is dependent upon the other :

A. I wish ¹that I could trust my servants ²as your master can trust you²¹. *Complex Sentence.*

I	<i>subject</i>
wish	<i>predicate verb</i>
that I could trust my servants as your master can trust you.	<i>object.</i>

1. That I could trust my servants as your master can trust you. *Noun Clause, object to 'wish' in A.*

That	<i>connective</i>
I	<i>subject</i>
could trust	<i>predicate verbs</i>
my servants	<i>object</i>
as your master can trust you.	<i>adjunct of manner.</i>

2. As your master can trust you. *Adverbial Clause to the verb 'trust' in 1.*

As	<i>connective</i>
your master	<i>subject</i>
can trust	<i>predicate verbs</i>
you	<i>object.</i>

The following sentence is analysed by the more concise method illustrated on p. 97.

Tom with his pipe did play with such skill ¹that those ²who heard him² could never keep still¹.

	Kind of Sentence or Clause.	Sentence and Clause Divided.	Names of Parts.
A.	<i>Complex Sentence.</i>	Tom did play with his pipe with such skill that those, &c.	<i>subject</i> <i>predicate</i> <i>adj. of instrument</i> <i>adj. of manner.</i>
1.	<i>Adverbial Clause of degree to 'such' in A.</i>	that those who, &c. could keep still never	<i>connective</i> <i>subject</i> <i>attribute to do.</i> <i>predicate verbs</i> <i>complement</i> <i>adjunct of time.</i>
2.	<i>Adjective Clause to 'those' in 1.</i>	who heard him	<i>subject</i> <i>predicate verb</i> <i>object.</i>

EXERCISE

Analyse the following sentences :

I can build a ship ¹that will sail more swiftly ²than the wind (sails)²¹. The tears were very near Jessie's eyes, ¹when she thought ²that perhaps her cat was lost²¹. Her meals came so regularly at home ¹that she scarcely knew ²what hunger was²¹. ¹If I were a sunbeam¹, I know ²what I would do². ¹What can be the use of him¹ is more ²than I can see (much)². A wretch, ¹though to-day he's o'erloaded with sorrow¹, may soar above those ²that oppressed him² to-morrow.

If I were a sunbeam, I know where I would go. Come, as the winds come, when forests are rended. Proof was plain, that, since the day when this ill-fated traveller died, the dog had watched about the spot. All I remember is friends flocking round, as I sat with his head 'twixt my knees on the ground. We all agree that every plate we break was cracked by Mr. Nobody. While on her pillow she softly lay, she knew nothing more till again it was day. By the side of their mothers, look, under the trees, how the young lambs are skipping about as they please. He said he did not know how many books he had. When I see him I shall ask him why he deceived me. The island had been enchanted by a witch called Sycorax, who died there a short time before he arrived. By virtue of his art, Prospero released many good spirits that Sycorax had imprisoned in the bodies of large trees, because they had refused to execute her wicked commands.

This one thing well we know,
That, where the Light Brigade is sent,
The Light Brigade will go.

COMPLEX SENTENCES WITH MORE THAN TWO DEPENDENT CLAUSES

A complex sentence may contain any number of dependent clauses, and these may all be dependent on some part of the main statement, or some of them may be dependent on others. The analysis of such a sentence is similar to that of a sentence containing one or two dependent clauses, and presents no great difficulty if it is clearly mapped out at the outset. The following are examples. The second is done by the more concise method.

A. Our rescuers told us ¹that, shortly ²after we set out², word had been brought to the town ³that a pack of wolves had entered the forest ⁴through which we were to pass⁴³¹. *Complex Sentence.*

Our rescuers	<i>subject</i>
told	<i>predicate verb</i>
us	<i>object, indirect</i>
that . . . to pass.	<i>object, direct.</i>

1. That shortly after we set out, word had been brought to the town that . . . to pass. *Noun Clause, object to 'told' in A.*

That	<i>connective</i>
word	<i>subject</i>
that a pack . . . to pass	<i>attribute to subject</i>
had been brought	<i>predicate</i>
to the town	<i>adjunct of place</i>
shortly after we set out.	<i>adjunct of time.</i>

2. After we set out. *Adverbial Clause to 'had been brought' in 1.*

After	<i>connective</i>
we	<i>subject</i>
set	<i>predicate</i>
out.	<i>adjunct of place.</i>

3. That a pack of wolves had entered the forest through which we were to pass. *Noun Clause in apposition to 'word' in 2.*

That	~~connective~~
a pack of wolves	<i>subject</i>
had entered	<i>predicate verbs</i>
the forest	<i>object</i>
through which we	
were to pass.	<i>attribute to object.</i>

4. Through which we were to pass. *Adjective Clause to 'forest' in 3.*

We	<i>subject</i>
were to pass	<i>predicate</i>
through which.	<i>adjunct of place and conn.</i>

B. ¹When we consider the natural helplessness of men ²who have lost their leader, ²¹ we may wonder ³that they still persisted in the dangerous enterprise ⁴with which they had been entrusted⁴³.

	Kind of Sentence or Clause.	Sentence and Clause Divided.	Names of Parts.
B.	<i>Complex Sentence</i>	we may wonder that they, &c. when we, &c.	subject predicate verbs adjunct of cause adjunct of time
1.	<i>Adverbial Clause of time to 'may wonder' in B.</i>	when we consider the natural helplessness of men who, &c.	conn. and adj. of time subject predicate verb object
2.	<i>Adjective Clause to 'men' in 1.</i>	who have lost their leader	subject predicate verb object
3.	<i>Adverbial Clause of cause to 'may wonder' in B.</i>	that they persisted still in the dangerous enterprise with which, &c.	connective subject predicate adjunct of time adjunct of place
4.	<i>Adjective Clause to 'enterprise' in 3.</i>	with which they had been entrusted	conn. and adj. of man. subject predicate

GENERAL ANALYSIS

The form of analysis shown in the foregoing examples is what is called a **detailed analysis**. In long sentences it is often sufficient to give a **general analysis**, that is an analysis showing the different clauses and their relation to each other without dividing them into subject, predicate, &c. In such an analysis it is seldom necessary to write out each of the dependent clauses in full. A clause can generally be indicated sufficiently by its connection. The following are examples:

A. The chief said ¹that he could not see us ²until a new hut was built², ³because the old one was flooded by the river ⁴which had been rising for some days⁴³¹.

A. The chief said that he, &c. *Complex Sentence.*

1. That he could not see us until, &c., because &c. *Noun Clause object to 'said' in A.*

2. Until a new hut was built. *Adverbial Clause of Time to 'could not see' in 1.*

3. Because the old one was flooded by the river which, &c. *Adverbial Clause of Cause to 'could not see' in 1.*

4. Which had been rising for some days. *Adjective Clause to the noun 'river' in 3.*

B. Some people, ¹who did not know the country¹, might ask ²how it was possible ³that there could be such a state of affairs ⁴as now prevailed⁴³, ⁵when there never was a time ⁶when the output of gold was so large ⁷as it was now⁷⁶⁵².

B. Some people, who, &c., might ask how, &c. *Complex Sentence.*

1. Who did not know the country. *Adjective Clause to the noun 'people' in B.*

2. How it was possible that, &c., when, &c. *Noun Clause object to 'might ask' in B.*

3. That there could be such a state of affairs as, &c. *Noun Clause in apposition to 'it' in 2.*

4. As now prevailed. *Adjective Clause to 'state' in 3.*

5. When there never was a time when, &c. *Adverbial Clause of time to 'was possible' in 2.*

6. When the output of gold was so large as it, &c. *Adjective Clause to 'time' in 5.*

7. As it was now. *Adverbial Clause of degree to 'so' in 6.*

EXERCISES

1. Analyse the following Complex Sentences (in detail):

None ¹who knew him¹ will think ²he lived in vain².

¹Where Blake and mighty Nelson fell¹, your manly hearts shall glow, ²as ye sweep through the deep, ³while the stormy winds do blow³².

The Spring is so cheerful, ¹(that) I think ²twould be wrong, ³if we did not feel happy to hear the lark's song³²¹.

He used to wish ¹when he went to bed¹ ²that ³when he awoke in the morning³ he might find nothing to do².

The lions' appetites were so insatiable ¹that he was forced to ask ²whether they were really worth ³what was done for them³²¹.

They had lived so long in falsehood ¹that they had forgotten ²there was any such thing ³as truth (in a thing)³ at all²¹.

¹If their children, ²as they grew up², did now and then happen to open their eyes and see ³how it really was,³¹ they learned from their fathers to hold their tongues about it.

On another occasion, a pardon was publicly offered to a robber, ¹if he would give up some rough diamonds of great value ²which he had taken ³when he stopped the Harwich mail³²¹.

¹When such was the state of the region inhabited by the most luxurious part of society¹, we can easily believe ²that the great body of the population suffered ³what would now be considered ⁴as intolerable grievances (are considered)⁴³².

2. *Make a General Analysis of the following sentences :*

It is a commonplace, that we cannot answer for ourselves before we have been tried.

I do not know how long it was before I scrambled into the tree to which I was left clinging.

If any of the sheep were lost, I should be as much to blame as (I should be much to blame) if I had taken them.

The majority of the inhabitants have a private opinion that they can speak English, which is not justified by the fact.

It sometimes happens that there is such a diversity of opinion that it is difficult to tell which of the two parties has a majority.

The only approach to an accident which I had was when a horse from which I had dismounted ran away as I was putting my foot in the stirrup.

I cannot help thinking that things would have gone better if we had been in closer touch, and if I had enjoyed more ready access to you than I had.

We had the joy of seeing at the head of the troop of horsemen who had rescued us the friend from whose house we had set out when we started on our journey.

Unfortunately the king was not so careful about his disguise as he should have been, considering he was in the country of an enemy who hated him so much as the Duke of Austria did.

Forgetting the distance he had to traverse, he set off at an imprudent rate of walking, which greatly exhausted him before he had scaled the first range of the low green hills which bounded his view.

Bruce had no sooner found himself at the head of a considerable body of followers, than, forgetting hunger and weariness, he began to inquire where the enemy who had pursued them so long had taken up their abode for the night.

The man who once begins to observe will speedily be able to remember everything he sees until he can find an opportunity to note it down.

They do not err
Who say that when the poet dies
Mute nature mourns her worshipper.

And I must not omit to say
That in Transylvania there's a tribe
Of alien people, who ascribe
The outlandish ways and dress
On which their neighbours lay such stress
To their fathers and mothers having risen
Out of some subterraneous prison,
Into which they were trepanned,
Long ago, in a mighty band,
Out of Hamelin town in Brunswick land.

3. *The above sentences may also be analysed in detail.*

COMPOUND SENTENCES

Look also at the following sentences :

The piper played *and* the people danced.

They sought him all day, *but* he eluded their search.

You must carry out my instructions, *or* you must leave **my service**.

I know that he was there, *for* I saw him.

They constantly visited him, *and* brought with them any strangers that might be staying with them.

We must try to reach the town before he gets there, *otherwise* we shall find the temples plundered.

That night she could not sleep, *for* joy sometimes banishes sleep as well as sorrow (banishes sleep).

In each of these sentences two main statements are made, each of which could stand by itself. That is to say, each of them consists of two sentences joined together. In the first four sentences each part of the whole sentence consists of two simple sentences. In each of the others one part of the whole sentence is complex. Sentences of this kind are called Compound Sentences.

A Compound Sentence is one which contains two or more simple or complex sentences joined together, as : I called him, but he gave me no answer. Early in the morning she rose, and before any of the inhabitants of the castle were awake, she set off alone to reach her old home.

The parts of a compound sentence are usually joined by conjunctions, such as *and*, *also*, *likewise*, *moreover*, *further* ; *but*, *yet*, *nevertheless*, *still*, *only* ; *or*, *nor*, *otherwise*, *else*, *for* ; or by adverbs such as *therefore*, *wherefore*, *hence*, *whence*, *so*, *then*, *thus*, *accordingly*, *consequently*.

The sentences which make up a compound sentence are said to be **co-ordinate** to each other ; that is, of the same rank. Sentences joined by no conjunction, or by conjunctions like '*and*,' '*also*,' &c., are sometimes said to be in **copulative co-ordination** ; sentences joined by '*but*,' '*yet*,' &c., are said to be in **adversative co-ordination** ; sentences joined by '*or*,' '*nor*,' &c., in **alternative co-ordination** ; sentences joined by '*for*' in **illative co-ordination** ; and sentences joined by adverbs like '*therefore*,' '*wherefore*,' &c., in **causative co-ordination**.

In a **complex sentence**, two or more of the dependent clauses are often **co-ordinate** to each other, as : There you might read how the wood-cutter gloried in his axe, and the gardener scorned to be ashamed of his spade. This is the man who sat and talked with me. I know his character because he is my neighbour and because he has often helped me.

NOTE.—In sentences like the following : 'I met John, who gave me a horse,' the clause 'who gave me a horse' is often said to be co-ordinate to the clause 'I met John,' because it is equivalent in meaning to 'and he gave me a horse.' Though logically co-ordinate, the clause is grammatically subordinate. It should be analysed : *Adjective clause to 'John' in A with co-ordinate meaning.*

KINDS OF CONJUNCTIONS

Look at the following sentences :

The piper played **and** the people danced.
 They walked **or** rode.
 John went away **but** Henry stayed.

The conjunctions **and**, **or**, **but**, in these sentences join together statements which are of equal importance or of equal rank.

Conjunctions which join together clauses of the same rank are called **Co-ordinative Conjunctions**.

The conjunctions which join together the similar minor parts of a sentence, such as subjects, complements, objects, or adjuncts, are all co-ordinative conjunctions.

Look also at the following :

I shall go **if** I can.
 He came **after** I returned.
 I know **that** they will come.
 He does **as** he likes.

In each of these sentences the clause which follows the conjunction is dependent upon the other clause. It is of less importance, or of lower rank.

Conjunctions which join clauses of lower rank to those of higher rank are called **Subordinative Conjunctions**.

The dependent clause may precede, or follow, or may be inserted within, the clause on which it depends, as : *When you come*, I shall return. I shall stay *if he goes*. We saw *as we went on our way* a great crowd of people collected.

The place of a subordinative conjunction is always at the beginning of the dependent clause.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

Look also at the following sentences :

Both John **and** James has come.
 Neither George **nor** Robert has come.
 Either Harry **or** Tom must go.
 I do not know **whether** they have come or not.

Some conjunctions are used in pairs. Such conjunctions are said to be **correlative** to each other. The first conjunction in such pairs may be parsed as an introductory conjunction, correlative to the other.

The first conjunction of such pairs was primarily an adjective, and by expanding the sentences it would be possible still to regard them as adjectives, thus: Both boys, John and James, have come. Either boy, Harry or Tom, must go. I do not know whether alternative is true, that they have come or that they have not come.

ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES

The analysis of a compound sentence is effected simply by analysing each of the simple or complex sentences of which it is composed. The following are examples:

A. Blessed are the merciful, for they shall obtain mercy. *Compound Sentence.*

(a) Blessed are the merciful. *Simple Sentence.*

The merciful	<i>subject</i>
are blessed.	<i>predicate.</i>

(b) For they shall obtain mercy. *Simple Sentence, co-ordinate to (a).*

For	<i>connective</i>
they	<i>subject</i>
shall obtain	<i>predicate verbs</i>
mercy.	<i>object.</i>

B. When I reached the valley, the brook had become a little river, and was now powerful enough to turn the large wheel of a mill which had been built on its bank. *Compound Sentence.*

(a) 'When I reached the valley', the brook had become a little river. *Complex Sentence.*

The brook	<i>subject</i>
had become	<i>predicate verbs</i>
a little river	<i>complement</i>
when I reached the valley.	<i>adjunct of time.</i>

1. When I reached the valley. *Adverbial Clause to 'had become' in (a).*

When	<i>conn. and adj. of time</i>
I	<i>subject</i>
reached	<i>predicate verb</i>
the valley.	<i>object.</i>

(b) And (the brook) was now powerful enough to turn the large wheel of a mill 'which had been built on its bank.' *Complex Sentence, co-ordinate to (a).*

And
(the brook)
was powerful
enough
now
to turn . . . bank.

connective
subject
predicate.
adjunct of degree
adjunct of time
adjunct of purpose.
Adjective Clause to the noun

1. Which had been built on its bank.
'mill' in (b).

Which
had been built
on its bank.

subject and connective
predicate
adjunct of place.

The following sentence is analysed by the more concise method.

C. ¹How long I slept¹ I know not, but ²when I opened my eyes² ³and started to my feet³, I perceived with horror ⁴that I was alone⁴ ⁵and that the ship was gone⁵. *Compound Sentence.*

	Kind of Sentence or Clause.	Sentence and Clauses Divided.	Names of Parts.
a.	<i>First Sentence. Complex.</i>	I know not how long, &c.	subject predicate verb adjunct of negation object.
1.	<i>Noun Clause object to 'know' in a.</i>	I slept how long	subject predicate adj. of time and conn.
b.	<i>Second Sentence. Complex.</i>	but I perceived that I, &c. and that the ship &c. with horror when I opened, &c. and (when I) started, &c.	connective subject predicate verb object object adjunct of manner adjunct of time adjunct of time
2.	<i>Noun Clause object to 'perceived' in b.</i>	that I was alone	connective subject predicate
3.	<i>Noun Clause object to 'perceived' in b. co-ordinate to 2</i>	and that the ship was gone	connectives subject predicate
4.	<i>Adverbial Clause of time to 'perceived' in b.</i>	when I opened my eyes	conn. and adj. of time subject predicate verb object
5.	<i>Adverbial Clause of time to 'perceived' in b, co-ordinate to 4</i>	and when I started to my feet	connective conn. and adj. of time subject predicate adjunct of place

EXERCISES

Analyse the following Sentences :

The old man dashed into the breach and fell pierced by the bullets of the besieged.

He took the book, read it, was struck with the beauty of the verses, and manifested the keenest interest at the discovery.

As he spoke, he thrust his right hand into the fire which was burning on the altar, and held it there till it was quite consumed.

He said he had mislaid the jewel, but as soon as he had found it he would send it to me.

The young officer rose to be a distinguished general in the British army, but he never forgot that he owed his life to the courageous devotion of his brave old serg ant.

A man that has a journey before him twenty miles in length, which he is to perform on foot, will not hesitate whether he shall set out or not because he does not readily conceive how he shall ever reach the end of it ; for he knows that by the simple operation of moving one foot forward first, and then the other, he shall be sure to accomplish it.

So saying, Locksley again bent his bow, but on the present occasion looked with attention to his weapon, and changed the string, which he thought was no longer truly round, having been a little frayed by the two former shots.

I rushed to and fro like one distracted, and when from the shore I saw the vessel under full sail just disappearing on the horizon, I wished bitterly enough that I had been content to stay at home in safety.

There is a time in every man's education when he arrives at the conviction that he must take himself for better or worse as his portion ; that, though the wide universe is full of good, no kernel of nourishing corn can come to him but through his toil bestowed on that plot of ground which is given him to till.

The power which resides in him is new in Nature, and none but he knows what that is which he can do, nor does he know until he has tried.

A pilgrim, when the summer day
Had closed upon his weary way,
A lodging begged beneath a castle's roof ;
But him the haughty warder spurned ;
And from the gate the pilgrim turned,
To seek such covert as the field
Or heath-besprinkled copse might yield,
Or lofty wood, shower-proof.

Where the bee sucks, there suck I ;
In a cowslip's bell I lie ;
There I couch when owls do cry ;
On the bat's back I do fly
After summer merrily :
Merrily, merrily shall I live now
Under the blossom that hangs on the bough.

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES

In complex sentences one or more words are frequently left out in a dependent clause which the mind readily supplies. This is the case particularly with the relative pronoun when it stands in the objective, and with the predicates of clauses following 'than' and 'as.' Such sentences are called **Elliptical** (meaning 'with words left out'). The missing words must be supplied before the sentence can be fully analysed. The following are examples :

Where is the book (which) I gave you ? Where is the thing (which) he asked you for ? The muscles of his brawny arms are strong as iron bands (are strong). He is much older than you (are old). My snug little nest in the old oak-tree is better than golden cage (is good) for me. Men turned pale as (they would turn pale) if they had heard of the death of a dear friend. As (I am) your father, I counsel you. They regarded him as (they would regard) their leader. He was looked upon as (an) honest (man would be looked upon); or : He was looked upon as (he would be looked upon if he were) honest. As (the matter stands) for me, I do not care. As (the matter relates) to his conduct, I have nothing to say.

EXERCISE

Supply the missing words in the following Elliptical Sentences, and then analyse the sentences :

You talk of wondrous things you see. Few and short were the prayers we said. I know the book you want. Where are the people you spoke of ? The light of the heaven she came from still lingered and gleamed in her hair. He is as tall as she. You are taller than he. That is more than I bargained for. When a tiger eats a man, I guess he has just as much justice on his side as the man when he eats a sheep. I know you better than he. I know you better than him.

Mankind was never so happily inspired as when he made a cathedral.

He told them it should be worse with them than if they had never been born.

There is no doubt that the poorer classes are much more charitably disposed than their superiors in wealth.

Nothing could be more valuable to you than the habit of using your own eyes and seeing for yourselves what takes place in this wonderful world of ours.

No excursion you ever made in pursuit of mere enjoyment and adventure by river, heath, or hill could give you more hearty pleasure than a ramble with eyes and ears open to note the lessons to be learned from every day and every landscape.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES

When a subject is followed by two or more verbs or complements, the sentence is compound, and is called a **Contracted Sentence**. In analysing such a sentence the subject must be repeated with each verb or complement.

Thus the sentence 'The children laughed and played' is contracted for: 'The children laughed and the children played.' 'He is a scholar and a gentleman' is contracted for: 'He is a scholar and he is a gentleman.'

When a verb is used with two or more subjects, objects, or adjuncts which are separated by 'but,' or by 'or' or 'nor' the sentence is compound, as the verb can only refer to one of these at once.

Thus the sentence 'Neither John nor I saw him' is contracted for 'Neither John saw him nor I saw him.' 'He has either obtained a situation or the prospect of one' is contracted for 'He has either obtained a situation or he has obtained the prospect of one.' 'He lives in Liverpool or Manchester' is contracted for 'He lives in Liverpool or he lives in Manchester.' 'He advanced slowly but surely' is contracted for 'He advanced slowly, but he advanced surely.'

But when a verb is used with two or more subjects, objects, or adjuncts which are joined by 'and,' the sentence should be regarded as simple. Thus the following are simple, not compound sentences:

He and I are at home.

Kings and emperors were among his customers.

They saw sheep, oxen, and horses on the farm.

Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

The subject of the first sentence is 'He and I,' and of the second 'Kings and emperors.' The object of the third sentence is 'sheep, oxen, and horses.' The adjunct of the last sentence is 'slowly and sadly.'

EXERCISE

Analyse the following sentences, expanding those which are contracted:

He took the book, read it, was struck by the beauty of the verses, and manifested the keenest interest at the discovery. The shepherd knows how much care and watchfulness are necessary to protect his flocks. The soldiers were strong and brave. He wore neither hat nor coat. The swarthy smith took dirk and brand. Jack and Jill went up the hill. With my granite jaws I devour the maize, the wheat, and the rye. No mate, no comrade, Lucy knew. The eye, the ear, and the nostril stand simply open. Light, sound, and fragrance enter. We are compelled to see, to hear, and to smell. He had the keenest enjoyment of wit, eloquence, and poetry. Wearily but steadily they plodded ever onwards.

PARENTHETICAL SENTENCES AND QUOTATIONS

A sentence which occurs within another sentence and interrupts its sense is called a **Parenthetical Sentence**, and must be analysed independently of the rest of the sentence. The parenthetical sentences in the following are marked by italics :

They suffered him, *I know not how*, unprisoned on the shore to roam. His eye, *methinks*, pursued the flight of birds to Britain halfway over. A stormy midnight watch, *he thought*, than this sojourn, would have been dearer. How he longed to travel! *he told me*. Anyone, *it seems*, can set down what he sees.

And no voice but was praising this Roland of mine,
As I poured down his throat our last measure of wine,
Which *(the burgesses voted by common consent)*
Was no more than his due who brought good news to Ghent.

When the direct words of a speaker are quoted after a verb such as 'said,' the quotation is the object to the verb 'said,' but must itself be analysed not as a subordinate, but as independent clause. The following is an example :

(a) The onlookers said, 'Anyone could do that.' *Simple sentence.*

The onlookers	subject
said	predicate verb
'Anyone could do that.'	object.

(b) Anyone could do that. *Simple sentence contained in (a).*

Anyone	subject
could do	predicate verbs
that.	object.

When the verb 'said' with its subject occurs in the middle or at the end of the quotation, it is simplest to regard it as a parenthetical clause. The following are examples :

'Did the fox eat the rabbit?' asked the little boy to whom the story had been told.

'And how if I refuse to shoot on such a wager?' said the yeoman.

'If thou refusest my fair offer,' said the prince, 'the provost of the lists shall cut thy bowstring.'

'I have always been fond of maps,' he declared, 'and can voyage in an atlas with the greatest enjoyment.'

'My pretty boy,' cried the man, 'has your father a grindstone?'

COMMON MISTAKES IN ENGLISH

For 'The army are under orders to march,' say 'The army **is** under orders to march.' 'The army' is here looked upon as one thing and must be followed by a singular verb.

For 'You must be careful of your healths,' say 'You must be careful of your health.' Abstract nouns are not used in the plural unless when different instances of a quality are referred to.

For 'It is me,' say 'It is **I**.' Copulative verbs take the same case after them as before them.

For 'Whom do men say that I am?' say 'Who do men say that I am?' 'Who' is the complement to 'am' and must agree with 'I.'

For 'Who do you think I saw to-day?' say 'Whom do you think I saw to-day?' The interrogative pronoun is the object to the verb 'saw.'

For 'Who do you take me for?' say 'Whom do you take me for?' 'Whom' is in the objective case to the preposition 'for.'

For 'You and me will go,' say 'You and I will go.' 'You' and 'I' are both subjects to 'will go.'

For 'Between you and I,' say 'Between you and **me**.' 'You' and 'me' are both in the objective case to the preposition 'between.'

For 'He plays better than me,' say 'He plays better than **I**.' 'Than' is a conjunction, not a preposition.

For 'These sort of things often occur,' say 'This sort of thing often occurs,' or 'Things of this sort often occur.' With a singular noun we must use the singular form of the adjective.

For 'Either of the two pupils do their part well,' say 'Either of the two pupils **does** his part well.' 'Either' is always used with a singular noun, and therefore the verb and pronoun that refer to such noun must also be singular.

In the same way, for 'Neither of them are better than they ought to be,' say 'Neither of them **is** better than **he** ought to be.'

For 'The boy and the girl must each do his or her part,' say 'The boy and the girl must each do **his** part.'

For 'Let each esteem other better than themselves,' say 'Let each esteem other better than **himself**.'

For 'Shakspeare is greater than any poet,' say 'Shakspeare is greater than **any other** poet.' Shakspeare is a poet and must be compared with *other* poets.

For 'Shakspeare is the greatest of all other poets,' say 'Shakspeare is the greatest of all poets.' 'Other' must not be used after a superlative.

For 'He was one of the greatest men that has ever lived,' say 'He was one of the greatest men that **have** ever lived.' The relative, and consequently the verb, agrees with 'men,' not with 'one.'

For 'I know that face of yours,' say 'I know your face.' A man has only one face. To say 'I know that brother of yours' is correct if not polite.

For 'Last year John and myself went to London,' say 'Last year John and I went to London.' The compound personal pronoun should only be used to express emphasis and reflexive action.

For 'His wisdom who made the world,' say 'The wisdom of Him who made the world.' The possessive case of the personal pronouns should not be used as the antecedent to a relative.

For 'This is the same man who came yesterday,' say 'This is the same man **that** came yesterday.' After 'same' we must use either 'that' or 'as.'

For 'He laid down on the grass,' say 'He **lay** down on the grass.' The verb 'lay, laid, laid,' is transitive (as: 'The hen laid eggs'). The intransitive verb is 'lie, lay, lain.' In the same way we must say 'The **lie** of the ground,' not 'the lay of the ground.'

For 'They seemed to eagerly listen,' say 'They **seemed to listen eagerly.**' The particle 'to' must not be separated from the verb. This mistake is called 'the split infinitive.'

For 'Having finished our work, the sun set,' say 'When we had finished our work, the sun set.' The noun or pronoun to which a participle refers must be expressed. This mistake is called 'the misrelated participle.'

For 'I expect to have been at home,' say 'I **expected to be** at home.' I did not expect *to have been*, I expected, *to be*. In the same way, for 'I was going to have written you a letter,' say 'I was going to **write** you a letter.'

For 'I would like to have seen him,' say 'I **should have liked to see** him.'

For 'You didn't ought to have gone,' say 'You **ought not to have gone.**' Auxiliaries of mood do not take other auxiliaries before them.

For 'He don't like it,' say 'He **does not like it.**' The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

For 'He was angry at me saying so,' say 'He **was angry at my saying so,**' or 'He **was angry at me for saying so.**'

For 'He said that he will come soon,' say 'He **said that he would come soon.**' Subordinative conjunctions join the same tenses of verbs. In the same way, for 'I was told that he has finished his work,' say 'I **was told that he had finished his work.**'

For 'That was the greatest blow that ever had or could happen to him,' say 'That was the greatest blow that ever **had happened or that could happen to him.**' When different parts of the verb are used after two auxiliaries the verb must be used with each. In the same way, for 'I never have, and never will, accuse him,' say 'I **never have accused and never will accuse him.**'

For 'He was as rich or even richer than his brother,' say 'He was as rich **as** his brother or even richer.' 'As' must follow 'as rich' and 'than' must follow 'richer.'

For 'Do it like I do,' say 'Do it **as I do.**' The word 'like' is never used as a conjunction.

For 'I cannot do it without you help me,' say 'I cannot do it **unless** you help me.' The word 'without' and 'except' are prepositions and not conjunctions.

For 'It is different to what I thought,' say 'It is different **from** what I thought.' 'From' is the only correct preposition to use after 'different.'

For 'He purchased a cottage in the High Street, and which he named Yester Cottage,' say 'He purchased a cottage in the High Street **which** he named Yester Cottage.' 'And who' and 'and which' must not be used unless 'who' or 'which' precedes.

For 'He fancied he would gradually get better, and that he had a good

chance of ultimate recovery,' say 'He fancied that he would, &c.' 'And that' must not be used unless 'that' precedes.

For 'Character as well as success are to be sought,' say 'Character as well as success is to be sought.' The subject to the verb is 'success'; the predicate to 'character' is understood.

EXERCISE

Correct the following faulty sentences: The crowd was most unruly. I am sure it was her. The House have adjourned. Who do you think we met? Whom do you suppose it was? Who did you buy it from? He said it was for you and I. You and me must take our chances. Is this James' book or George's? His sister is a better scholar than him. He is older than her. I hate those sort of people. Neither of the men are in their place. Every man, woman and child must do their best. He is the best of the two. This is the biggest of all the rest. John is taller than any of the boys. Of all other Empires, the British is the greatest. Show me that tongue of yours. Myself and George went to the theatre. I, he, and you will go. You, we, and they are chosen. It was their fault who brought him up. This is not the same horse which you had before. All who know him will testify to his good character. He was the best violinist who ever came to our town. He got up and laid down again. The dust has laid on the table a long time. She went out and began to bitterly weep. Walking in my garden, a thought struck me. Having finished the chapter, the book was shut. I intended to have met you. I should like to have seen him. I will be drowned, and nobody shall save me. He didn't ought to have told you. He don't tell me anything. What is the use of you saying so? He was a man of far inferior abilities than Bismarck. Neither he nor his brother were first. He said that you can come. They told me that you have arrived. It was the strangest thing that has or could happen. His prospects are no better, nor even as good as they were before. He was most remarkable clever. Do not play all day like your brother does. I am very different to my brother. He had scarcely gone than his friend arrived. I prefer his cousin than him. He has left a month ago. My horse has become lame two weeks since. England is settled at Hong-kong for some time past. I wouldn't have had gone, if you had not pressed me. I should be glad if he was here. If he were here yesterday, nobody knew it. I have great sympathy for him. They live at London. He settled at Liverpool. He went in the room. We saw a black and white horse grazing together in the field. The secretary and treasurer have come. Having knocked the fellow down, the other who pursued him stopped. He did not think that those who drew up the petition quite understood what they were doing, and aimed at a little more than was possible. The community urgently require the improvement, and of which the need is patent to everyone, and we cannot see anything to stand in the way of it being granted.

THE SOUNDS OF WORDS

The sounds of words are of two kinds : (a) open sounds which can be pronounced fully and distinctly by themselves ; (b) stopped or checked sounds which can only be pronounced fully along with another sound.

Those sounds which can be pronounced alone are called **vowels** (Latin *vocalis*, soundable). Those sounds which can only be pronounced fully along with vowels are called **consonants** (Latin *con*, with, and *sonans*, sounding).

There are at least **sixteen** distinct vowel sounds in English (besides several indistinct sounds, several of the distinct sounds modified by an **r** following, and several sounds that only occur in words borrowed from French and German).

For a complete list of English vowel sounds see the Table of Sounds in each volume of 'The New English Dictionary.'

There are **twenty-four** consonant sounds in English, though two of these are sometimes regarded as combinations of other sounds.

As there are only twenty-six letters in the English Alphabet, and three of these, **c**, **q**, and **x**, are only used to represent sounds which are otherwise represented, it is evident that our alphabet is altogether inadequate. We have only five letters, **a**, **e**, **i**, **o**, **u**, to represent sixteen vowel sounds, and only eighteen effective letters to represent twenty-four consonant sounds. If the same sound were always represented in the same way, the confusion would not be so great, but, owing to a variety of causes (such as the different spelling of the same sound in the different languages of which English is made up, and the various methods of spelling adopted by different writers when our written language was forming), we find the same sound sometimes represented in a dozen different ways, and the same letter used to represent half a dozen different sounds. English is thus probably the worst spelt language in the world.

Our English Orthography (or method of spelling) is defective, because it has only twenty-six letters to represent at least forty simple sounds. It is redundant, because three of the letters, **c**, **q**, **x**, are unnecessary. It is inconsistent, because the same sound is represented in many different ways.

THE VOWEL SOUNDS

The difference between the vowel sounds depends on their length, on the position in the mouth in which they are formed, and on the manner in which the mouth is held open in sounding them.

The vowel sounds may be represented as follows :

- â (long back a), as in ah, father, path, psalm.
- a (short back a), as in about, sofa, cart, clerk.
- ā (long front a), as in fare, fair, there, their.
- ă (short front a), as in man, pat, lad, marry.
- ê (long e), as in fête, fate, rein, rain.
- e (short e), as in pen, met, led, many.
- ī (long i), as in marine, seen, seize, liege, lead.
- ĭ (short i), as in pit, pity, pitiful.
- ô (long back o), as in more, sought, taught, all, awe.
- o (short back o), as in not, nor, already, what.
- ō (long front o), as in note, soul, roll, moan, old.
- ō (short front o), as in obey, alto, follow.
- û (long back u), as in hurt, word, earth, birth.
- u (short back u), as in but, bud, run, blood.
- ū (long front u), as in cool, moon, true, brew.
- ũ (short front u), as in put, full, foot.

Besides the above more or less simple vowel sounds there are in English five sounds which are formed by combining together in one effort of the voice two of the simple sounds. These are called **diphthongs** (double sounds), and are as follow :

- āĭ, as in assegaĭ, fine, ĩsle, try.
- aũ, as in now, round.
- iũ, as in use (verb), view, beauty, new, you.
- iũ, as in use (noun), newt, feud.
- oi, as in boil, boy, buoy.

The sounds represented above by ê and ô as pronounced in modern English are of a semi-diphthongal nature, the e sound in ê being followed by a slight ĭ sound, and the o sound in ô being followed by a slight u sound.

For a satisfactory alphabet we require at least three additional vowel sounds to represent the sounds of a in 'man,' o in 'not,' and u in 'but.' We should then have a separate character for each of the eight short vowel sounds, and the corresponding long sounds could be represented by a mark of length written over them.

THE CONSONANT SOUNDS

The vowel sounds, as we have seen, are **open** sounds, in which the breath flows freely; the consonant sounds are sounds in which the breath is **stopped** or checked.

The consonant sounds are classified in two different ways. They are divided, first, according to *the part of the mouth* by which the breath is stopped: into **labials**, where it is stopped by the lips; **dentals**, where it is stopped by the teeth; **palatals**, where it is stopped by the palate; and **gutturals**, where it is stopped in the throat.

They are divided, secondly, according to *the degree* in which the breath is stopped: into **mutes**, in which it is stopped abruptly, as **p, b, t, d**; **spirants**, in which it is stopped gradually, as **f, v, th, sh**; and **liquids**, in which it is stopped partially, as **l, m, n, r**.

The mutes and spirants again are divided into **hard** or **sharp**, and **soft** or **flat**, according to the amount of effort required in sounding them. Thus **p, t, k, f, s** are hard, while **b, d, g, v, z**, are soft.

Those spirants which are produced with a hissing sound, such as **s, z, sh, ch**, are called **sibilants** (Latin *sibilans*, hissing).

The liquids are divided into the **nasals**, **m, n, ng**, in which the breath escapes through the nose, and the **trills**, **l, r**, which are produced with a slight vibration of the tongue.

The sounds represented by **w** and **y** are really the sounds of the vowels **u** and **i** become more or less consonantal before another vowel. They are therefore called **semi-vowels**.

The sound represented by **h** is rather a breathing than a distinct sound, and hence it is called the aspirate (Latin *aspiro*, I breathe).

The following are the consonant sounds used in English:

(a) LABIAL SOUNDS

p, as in *pat, tap*.
b, as in *bat, tub*.
f, as in *fall, beef*.

v, as in *vain, live*.
m, as in *man, room*.
w, as in *will*.

(b) DENTAL SOUNDS**t**, as in take, mat.**n**, as in now, then.**d**, as in deal, lad.**l**, as in look, reel.**th**, as in think, bath.**s**, as in sit, pass.**dh**, as in then, bathe.**z**, as in zeal, rose.**(c) PALATAL SOUNDS****ch**, as in cheek, touch, catch.**sh**, as in shall, sash.**j**, as in jam, gem, judge.**zh**, as in azure, measure.**y**, as in young.**(d) GUTTURAL SOUNDS****k**, as in king, seek.**r**, as in roll, carry.**g**, as in give, bag.**h**, as in have.**ng**, as in ring, singer, ink.

The relation of the different consonant sounds to each other is shown in the following table :

TABLE OF CONSONANT SOUNDS

	Mutes		Spirants		Liquids		Semi-vowels	Aspi- rate
	Hard	Soft	Hard	Soft	Nasals	Trills		
Labials .	p	b	f	v	m	..	w	..
Dentals .	t	d	{ th s	{ dh z	{ n	l	..	..
Palatals.	..	..	{ sh ch	{ zh j				
Gutturals	k	g	..	..	ng	r	..	h

In the above table the sibilant sounds are the dentals **s** and **z**, and the palatals, **ch**, **j**, **sh**, and **zh**.

The sounds represented by **ch** and **j** are often called double consonants, **ch** being regarded as equivalent to **t** + **sh**, and **j** as equivalent to **d** + **zh**.

A real double consonant is the sound represented by **wh** in 'when,' 'where.' This sound should be represented by **hw**, as the aspirate comes before the semi-vowel and not after.

In the table the places of the guttural spirants are left blank. These sounds do not occur in ordinary English, but the hard spirant (**kh**) occurs in the Scotch pronunciation of **ch** in 'loch,' and the soft spirant (**gh**) in the Northumbrian pronunciation of **r**, which is called the Northumbrian 'burr.' It is the sound of **g** in the German 'sagen.'

For a satisfactory alphabet we require six additional letters to represent the consonant sounds represented above by **th**, **dh**, **ch**, **sh**, **zh**, and **ng**.

THE FORMATION OF WORDS

In regard to the manner of their formation, words are divided into primitive, derivative, and compound words.

Primitive words are those which are not formed from other words, but belong to the original stock of words in the language. Many of our commonest nouns, such as sun, moon, star, ox, sheep, goat, man, wife, son, our simple pronouns, our strong verbs and many irregular weak verbs, and our commonest adjectives and conjunctions, such as good, bad, far, nigh, and, or, till, are primitive words.

Compound words are those in which two or more words are put together to make one. The following are examples. It will be noticed that in the case of adjectives the participial endings *ing* and *ed* are often added.

Compound Nouns : Halfpenny, moonlight, nobleman, shoemaker, mid-shipman, pickpocket, spendthrift, riding-habit, afterthought, welcome.

Compound Adjectives : Snow-white, blue-black, upright, all-seeing, ear-piercing, well-meaning, moth-eaten, blood-stained, downhearted.

Compound Pronouns : Myself, themselves, whosoever, whatever.

Compound Verbs : Browbeat, foretell, fulfil, outdo, whitewash, undergo.

Compound Adverbs : Hereby, therefore, thereupon, wherein, anyhow, meanwhile, sometimes, moreover, nevertheless, notwithstanding, headforepost, piecemeal, upstairs.

Compound Prepositions : Inside, into, notwithstanding, throughout, unto (for onto), until, upon, without, within.

Several compound words show changes in pronunciation and spelling; others contain words which are no longer in current use separately. The following are some examples :

Ballast = bat-last, boat-load ; bridal = bride-ale ; brimstone = burn-stone ; daisy = day's eye ; doff = do off ; gospel = good-spel, good-news ; husband = house-band ; huzzy = house-wife ; neighbour = neah-bur, near-dweller ; prithe = I pray thee ; orchard = ort-yard, root-garden ; stirrup = stig-rap, mounting-rope ; vineyard = vine-garden ; walrus = whale-herse ; woman = wife-man.

Derivative words are those which are formed from other words belonging to our own or some other language.

Derivatives are of two kinds—those which are formed by some change in the word, as seat from sit, full from fill ; and those which are formed by an addition to the word, as rebound from bound, kingly from king.

The following are examples of primitive words (the first in each group), and of derivative words formed from them by a change in the sound :

Bind, band and bond ; blood, bleed ; break, breach ; breed, brood ; choose, choice ; dig, ditch and dike ; dog, dodge ; deem, doom ; drink, drench ; drop, drip ; fall, fell ; feed, food ; fill, full ; gird, girth ; gold, gild ; grieve, grief ; glass, glaze ; heal, hale ; heat, hot ; hold, hilt ; live, life ; lend, loan ; love, lief ; lose, loss ; melt, smelt ; plash, splash ; rise, raise and rouse ; roll, reel ; sit, set and seat ; shear, share and shire ; shake, shock ; speak, speech ; sing, song ; strike, stroke ; stick, stitch ; tell, tale ; weave, web and woof.

The second kind of derivative words is formed by the addition of prefixes or suffixes.

A prefix is a significant syllable (or syllables) put before a word to form a new word, as : up-start, com-pose, ana-lyse.

A suffix is a significant syllable (or syllables) put after a word to form a new word, as : hunt-er, laud-able, aster-isk.

Many of the prefixes and suffixes used in forming new words are of English origin ; many more are of Latin origin, and many of these have been modified in coming to us through the French language ; and a considerable number are of Greek origin.

ENGLISH PREFIXES

A, on, at, as : ashore, about, abed, afoot, anon.

A, from, as : alight, arise, arouse, awake.

After, after, as : afternoon, aftermath, afterthought.

Al, all, as : almost, altogether, almighty.

Be, to, for, as : bechance, befall, bemoan, bespeak.

Be, to make, as : bedew, becalm, benumb, befriend, bedaub.

For, thoroughly, without, as : forgive, forget, forswear, forgo.

Fore, before, as : forenoon, forecast, forehead.

Gain, against, as : gainsay.

In, in, as : income, inlay, intake.

Mis, wrong, wrongly, as : mistake, misfortune, mislead.

N, not, as : nor, none, never, naught.

Off, off, as : offspring, offshoot, offal.

Out, beyond, as : outdo, outbid, outshine.

Over, beyond, above, as : overwork, overshoot, overhang, overlay.

To, to, this, as : together, towards, to-day, to-morrow.

Un, not, as : unclean, unkind, unsafe.

Un, to reverse an action, as : unfold, unroll, uncurl.

Under, beneath, as : underground, undersell, undergo.

With, against, as : withstand, withhold, withdraw.

LATIN PREFIXES

Where several forms of a prefix are given, the first is the primitive and commonest form. The others are due to assimilation or adaptation to the first letter of the root following, or to modification in passing through the French language.

Ab (abs, a), *away from*, as : abjure, abstract, avert.

Ad (ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at, a), *to*, as : adapt, accord, aggravate, allude, annex, appear, arrest, assure, attain, ascend.

Ambi (amb, am), *about*, as : ambiguous, ambition, amputate.

Ante (anti, an), *before*, as : antedate, anticipate, ancestor.

Bis (bi), *twice*, as : biscuit, bisect, binomial.

Circum (circuit), *around*, as : circumference, circuit, circulate.

Cum (com, col, con, cor, coun, co), *with*, as : compound, collect, connect, correct, counsel, coeval.

Contra (contro, counter), *against*, as : contradict, controvert, counter-balance.

De, *down*, as : descend, delay, depart, desperate.

Dis (dif, di), *asunder*, as : dismount, difficult, divorce.

Ex (e, s), *out of*, as : exalt, exhale, elect, evade, special, sample.

Extra, *beyond*, as : extraordinary, extravagant, extramural.

In (il, im, ir, en, em), *in, into*, as : invade, illumine, irritate, enchant, embrace.

In (ig, il, im, ir), *not*, as : inconsolable, ignorant, illiberal, impious, irreverent.

Inter (intro, enter), *between, among*, as : interdict, introduce, enterprise.

Male (mal), *ill*, as : malevolent, malediction, malodorous.

Mis (mes), *badly*, as : misadventure, mischief, mesalliance.

Non, *not*, as : nonconformist, non-juror, nonsense.

Ob (oc, of, op), as : obtain, occur, offend, oppress.

Pen, *almost*, as : peninsula, penultimate, penumbra.

Per (pel), *through*, as : permit, perfect, pellucid.

Post, *after*, as : postpone, postscript, posthumous.

Pre, *before*, as : predict, pretend, prevent.

Preter, *beyond*, as : preternatural, preterite.

Pro (pol, por, pur, pour), *for*, as : pronoun, pollute, portray, pursue.

Re (red), *back, again*, as : receive, return, redeem.

Retro, *backward*, as : retrograde, retrospect.

Se (sed), *apart*, as : secede, seclude, sedition.

Sub (suc, suf, sug, sum, sup, sur, sus), *under*, as : subtract, succour, suffer, suggest, summon, suppress, surround, sustain.

Subter, *beneath*, as : subterfuge.

Super (sur), *above*, as : supersede, supernatural, surmount.

Trans (tra), *beyond, across*, as : transmit, transitive, traverse.

Ultra, *beyond*, as : ultramarine, ultramontane.

Unus (uni, un), *one*, as : uniform, universe, unanimous.

Vice (vis), *in the place of*, as : viceroy, viceregal, viscount.

GREEK PREFIXES

An (a), *not*, as : anarchy, anonymous, atheism.

Amphi, *on both sides*, as : amphibious, amphitheatre.

Ana, *up, back*, as : analysis, anatomy, anachronism.

Anti (ant), *against, opposite to*, as : antipathy, antipodes, antarctic.

Apo (ap), *away from*, as : apostate, apology, aphelion.

Arch (arche, archi), *chief*, as : archangel, archetype, architect.

Auto (auth), *self*, as : autocrat, autograph, authentic.

Cata (cat), *down*, as : cataclysm, catastrophe, catechism.

Dia, *through*, as : diameter, diagonal, diagram.

Dis (di), *twice*, as : dissyllable, diphthong, dilemma.

Dys, *ill*, as : dysentery, dyspepsia.

Ec, **ex**, *out of*, as : eccentric, exodus, eclipse.

En (el, em), *in*, as : encomium, ellipse, emphatic.

Epi (ep), *upon*, as : epitaph, ephemeral.

Eu (ev), *well*, as : eulogy, evangel.

Hemi, *half*, as : hemisphere, hemistich.

Hyper, *over, above*, as : hyperbole, hypercritical.

Hypo (hyp), *under*, as : hypocrite, hypothesis, hyphen.

Meta (met), *after, changed for*, as : metamorphosis, method.

Mono (mon), *alone*, as : monotone, monad, monk.

Pan, *all*, as : panacea, panorama, pantheism.

Para (par), *by the side of*, as : paradox, parallel, parody.

Peri, *round*, as : perimeter, period.

Pro, *before*, as : problem, prologue, prophet.

Pros, *towards*, as : proselyte, prosody.

Syn (syl, sym, sy), *with*, as : syntax, syllable, sympathy, system.

EXERCISE

Point out the prefixes in the following words and give the meaning of each prefix : absentee, antecedent, antipathy, awaken, betrothal, circumlocution, contradictory, diametrically, difference, enormous, enthusiasm, forbearance, hypothesis, imprisonment, malefactor, monotonous, misbehaviour, opportunity, outlawry, polygamy, purchaser, separately, susceptible, transatlantic, undergrowth.

ENGLISH SUFFIXES

(a) OF NOUNS

ar	{	<i>agent or doer</i>	liar, beggar
ard, art			drunkard, sluggard, braggart
er			baker, weaver, sinner
eer			mountaineer, engineer
ler, yer			clothier, lawyer, sawyer
or			sailor, tailor
man			woodman, sportsman
ster			punster, songster
ter, ther			daughter, sister, brother
wright			wheelwright, shipwright
en	{	<i>a little thing</i>	kitten, chicken, maiden
et			pocket, locket, floweret
let			leaflet, ringlet
ling			darling, gosling, duckling
kin			lambkin, firkin
ock			bullock, hillock
ow			meadow, shadow
y, ie	{	<i>instrument</i>	baby, lassie, birdie
el			satchel, shovel
le			girdle, handle, thimble
er			finger, hanger, water
der, ter	{	<i>skill</i>	rudder, winter
craft			priestcraft, witchcraft
ery, ry	{	<i>state or 'quality</i>	bravery, mockery, husbandry
dom			kingdom, serfdom, thralldom
hood, head			childhood, boyhood, Godhead
lock, ledge			wedlock, knowledge
ness			boldness, shyness, weariness
red			hatred, kindred
ship			hardship, friendship, worship
th	{	<i>action</i>	length, mirth, sloth, health
ing			reading, walking, riding
d	{	<i>result of action</i>	seed, cud, ford
t			sight, weight, weft, gift

Nouns formed by the addition of a suffix meaning 'a little thing,' such as 'chicken, locket,' are called 'diminutives.'

(b) OF VERBS

en	{	<i>to make</i>	lengthen, strengthen, weaken
se			cleanse, rinse
er	{	<i>to do often or much</i>	batter, glimmer, clamber
k			hark, talk, stalk
le, l			grapple, waddle, nibble, kneel

Verbs meaning 'to do often' are called 'frequentatives.'

(c) OF ADJECTIVES

ey, y	}	<i>full of, having</i>	{	clayey, cloudy, windy, stormy
fast				steadfast, soothfast, shamefaced
ful				fruitful, hopeful, truthful
some				toilsome, burdensome, handsome
less				fruitless, hopeless, fearless
ish	}	<i>void of, without rather, somewhat</i>	{	reddish, whitish, girlish
like, ly				godlike, warlike, manly
ing				pleasing, cloud-compelling
ed				talented, wretched, learned
en				molten, laden, hewn, stricken
en	}	<i>quality</i>	{	wooden, golden, flaxen
fold				twofold, manifold
teen				fourteen, seventeen
th				fourth, fortieth
ty				forty, ninety
erly	}	<i>direction</i>	{	easterly, westerly
ward				northward, upward
ern				northern, southern

(d) OF ADVERBS

long	}	<i>manner</i>	{	headlong, sidelong, endlong
ly				boldly, strongly, wisely
way, ways				straightway, always
wise				likewise, otherwise
meal				piecemeal
ce	}	<i>time</i>	{	once, twice, thrice
st				whilst, amongst, amidst
om				seldom, whilom
n				then, when
nce				hence, thence, whence
re	}	<i>place</i>	{	here, there, where
ther				hither, thither, whither
ward, wards				forward, backwards

LATIN SUFFIXES

(a) OF NOUNS

ant, ent	}	<i>agent or doer</i>	{	servant, regent
ate				advocate, curate
or, our				actor, emperor, saviour
ee	}	<i>one acted upon</i>	{	legatee, trustee
an, ain				artisan, chaplain
ary				notary, secretary
eer, ler	}	<i>one connected with</i>	{	engineer, grenadier
ess				lioness, countess
trix				executrix, heritrix
		<i>trade or profession</i>		
		<i>of the female sex.</i>		

el, le	}	<i>a little thing</i>	{	chapel, libel, castle, title
icle, cel, sel				cubicle, parcel, morsel
oon, on, one	}	<i>a large thing</i>		balloon, million, trombone
age				courage, homage, marriage
ce, cy	}	<i>state</i>		justice, secrecy
ance, ancy				abundance, expectancy
mony				matrimony, sanctimony
our, eur				clamour, honour, grandeur
tude				altitude, fortitude
ty, ity				cruelty, poverty, vanity
y	}	<i>action</i>		misery, victory
lon, sion, tion				opinion, passion, eviction
ment	}	<i>result of action</i>		document, judgment
ure				aperture, picture
ary, ry	}	<i>place</i>		aviary, treasury
ern				cavern, cistern, tavern
ory, or, our				dormitory, mirror, parlour

(b) OF VERBS

ate	}	<i>to make</i>	{	celebrate, expiate
ete				complete, delete
lte				expedite
fy				magnify, verify
ish				finish, polish

(c) OF ADJECTIVES

{	al	{	legal, regal, loyal, royal
	ar		lunar, stellar, regular
	ary		contrary
	arian		agrarian
	arious		gregarious
	ic		civic
	ile, il		servile, civil
	esque		grotesque, picturesque
	ine		feline, canine, marine
	ous		anxious, ponderous
{	tic	{	aquatic, gigantic
	an, ane, ain		human, humane, certain
	id		acid, frigid, torrid
	ive		active, passive, plaintive
	lent		pestilent, virulent
	ory		cursor, illusory
	ose		verbose, morose
	ulous		querulous
	und, ond		jocund, rotund, vagabond
	aceous		argillaceous
{	ferous	{	auriferous, somniferous
	able, ible		culpable, flexible
	ile, il		docile, fragile
	ble, ple		treble, double, simple

GREEK SUFFIXES

ist	<i>agent or doer</i>	botanist, soloist, artist
ist	<i>of a certain creed</i>	Calvinist, Methodist
isk	<i>a little thing</i>	asterisk, obelisk
ism	<i>state</i>	barbarism, despotism
sis, sy	<i>action</i>	crisis, emphasis, heresy
ma, m	<i>result of action</i>	dogma, drama, poem, schism
e, y	<i>state</i>	catastrophe, monarchy
ic, ics	<i>study</i>	logic, ethics, dynamics
tre	<i>place</i>	centre, theatre
ic	<i>belonging to</i>	angelic, philosophic
ize	<i>to make</i>	baptize, theorize

HYBRID WORDS

As a rule English prefixes and suffixes are used with English words or roots, and similarly Latin prefixes and suffixes are used with Latin words or roots, and Greek with Greek ; but we have a considerable number of words where a prefix or suffix belonging to one language is used with a word or root belonging to another. Such words are called **hybrids**. Examples are :

English and Latin : Atone-ment, fulfil-ment ; cooker-y, robber-y ; goda-ess, murder-ess ; un-able, un-apt ; eat-able, teach-able ; behav-iour, talk-ative, coward-ice, burn-ish, out-line, under-line, mis-fortune.

Latin and English : En-dear, em-body ; re-call, re-open ; cott-age, bond-age ; explor-er, expound-er ; doubt-less, sense-less ; fruit-ful, success-ful ; close-ly, similar-ly ; dis-like, per-haps, sub-let ; acute-ness, remote-ness.

Latin and Greek : De-ism, congregational-ism ; art-ist, special-ist, civil-ise, real-ise, bi-metallism.

Greek and Latin : Logic-al, typic-al ; deacon-ess, prophet-ess.

EXERCISE

Point out prefixes and suffixes in the following words and give the meaning of each prefix and suffix : almighty, apocalyptic, appalling, binocular, bespatter, co-ordinative, demented, dishonourable, ecstatic, episcopal, forwarding, injustice, intermarriage, metaphysics, misadventure, misbehaviour, naughty, pellucid, peripatetic, retrospective, subterranean, supernumerary, sympathize, uneasiness.

LATIN ROOTS

The following is a list of two hundred of the commonest Latin words from which English words are derived, with examples of such derived words. Where two forms of a Latin verb are given, the second is, in the case of transitive verbs, a passive participle; and, in that of intransitive verbs, a kind of infinitive. Where two forms of a noun are given, the second is the genitive or possessive case.

Acer, sharp : acrid, acrimony, eager, vinegar.

Æquus, equal : equal, equator, equinox, equity, iniquity, adequate.

Ager, a field : agriculture, agrarian, peregrination, pilgrim.

Ago, actus, I do : agent, agile, agitate, action, exact, reaction.

Alius, another : alien, alienate, aliquot, alias.

Alter, other of two : alternate, alternation, subaltern, altercation.

Altus, high : altitude, alto, exalt, altar, haughty.

Amo, I love : amiable, amity, amorous, amatory, inimical, enemy.

Angulus, a corner : angle, rectangle, triangle, quadrangular.

Anima, life ; *animus, mind* : animal, animate, unanimous, magnanimity

Annus, a year : annual, anniversary, perennial, triennial.

Aperio, apertus, I open : aperture, apertient, April.

Appello, I call : appeal, appellant, appellation, repeal, peal.

Aqua, water : aquatic, aquarium, aqueous, aqueduct.

Ars, artis, art : artist, artisan, artifice, artillery, inert.

Audio, I hear : audience, audible, auditorium, auditor.

Bellum, war : belligerent, bellicose, rebel, rebellious.

Brevis, short : brevity, abbreviate, brief, breviary, abridge.

Cado, casum, I fall : case, casual, cadence, accident, coincidence.

Caedo, casus, I cut, kill : decide, homicide, excision, precise.

Candeo, I shine : candid, candour, candidate, incandescent.

Cano, cantum, I sing : cant, canticle, chant, enchantment.

Capio, captus, I take : capable, captive, accept, reception.

Caput, capitis, the head : capital, captain, cape, chaplet.

Caro, carnis, flesh : carnal, carnival, carnivorous, charnel.

Causa, a cause : casual, causative, accuse, excuse, recusant.

Cavus, hollow : cave, cavity, cavern, excavate, concave.

Cedo, cessum, I go, yield : cede, proceed, concession, ancestor.

Centrum, centre : centre, eccentric, centralise, concentrate.

Centum, a hundred : cent, century, centurion, centipede.

Cerno, cretus, I distinguish : concern, discretion, discreet.

Clamo, I shout : claim, clamour, exclaim, reclaim, proclamation.

Clarus, clear : clarify, declare, claret, clarion, clarity.

Claudo, clausus, I shut : clause, close, conclude, seclusion.

Clino, I lean : decline, incline, recline, declension, declivity.

Colo, cultus, I till : colony, cultivate, culture, agriculture.

Coquo, I cook : biscuit, concoction, decoction, cook.

Cor, cordis, the heart : cordial, concord, discordant, courage.

- Corona, a crown** : coronet, coronation, coroner, corolla, coronal.
Corpus, the body : corps, corpse, corporal, corporation, corpulent.
Credo, I believe : credible, creed, creditor, credential, miscreant.
Creo, I create : create, creation, creature, recreation.
Cresco, I grow : decrease, increase, increment, crescent, concrete.
Crux, a cross : crucial, crucifix, crusade, cruise.
Cubo, I lie down : cubicle, cubit, incubate, recumbent, succumb.
Culpa, a fault : culpable, culprit, inculcate, exculpate.
Cura, care : curate, curator, inaccurate, secure, curable.
Curro, cursum, I run : current, excursion, incur, course, cursory.
Dens, dentis, a tooth : dental, dentine, dentist, indent, trident.
Deus, God : deity, deity, deism, divine.
Dico, dictus, I say : diction, dictionary, predict, verdict, ditto.
Dies, a day : diary, diurnal, meridian, journal, sojourn, adjourn.
Dignus, worthy : dignify, dignity, indignant, deign, disdain.
Do, datus, I give : date, datum, tradition, add, addition, condition.
Doceo, doctus, I teach : docile, doctor, doctrine, document.
Dominus, a lord : dominion, domineer, dominant, domain, don, dame.
Dormio, I sleep : dormitory, dormant, dormer-window.
Duco, ductus, I lead : duct, induction, product, education, duke.
Durus, hard, lasting : durable, duration, during, indurate, obdurate.
Duo, two : dual, duel, duet, duplex, double, duodecimal.
Eo, itum, I go : exit, transition, ambition, circuit, perish.
Esse, to be : essence, essential, interest, present, absent.
Facio, I make : fact, factor, faction, manufacture, feat, feature.
Fendo, I strike : fender, defend, offence, offensive.
Fero, latus, I carry : infer, reference, suffer, relate, ablative.
Fido, I trust : confide, diffident, infidel, perfidy, defy.
Finis, the end : finite, infinite, infinitive, finish, define.
Flecto, flexus, I bend : inflict, inflexible, reflection, flexure.
Flos, floris, a flower : flora, floral, florid, inflorescence.
Fluo, fluxum, I flow : fluent, fluid, flux, affluent, confluence.
Forma, a form : form, formal, deformed, reform, nonconformity.
Fortis, strong : fort, fortress, fortify, fortitude, enforce.
Frango, fractus, I break : fragile, fraction, fragment, infringe.
Frater, a brother : fraternal, fratricide, confraternity, friar.
Frons, frontis, forehead : front, frontier, frontal, confront.
Fugio, I flee : fugitive, refuge, subterfuge, centrifugal.
Fundo, fusus, I pour : fountain, foundry, fuse, diffuse, confuse.
Fundus, the bottom : found, foundation, profound, fundamental.
Gens, gentis, a race : gentile, genteel, gentleman, congenial.
Gero, gestus, I bear : gesture, congestion, digestion, belligerent.
Gradior, gressus, I go : grade, degrade, progress, graduate, gradient.
Gratia, favour : gratitude, gratis, ingratiate, grateful, graceful.
Gravis, heavy : grave, gravity, gravitation, grieve, aggrieve.
Habeo, I have : habit, habitable, habituate, prohibit, exhibition.
Homo, a man : homage, homicide, human, humane, inhuman, humanity.
Impero, I command : imperative, imperial, emperor, empire.
Jacio, jactus, I throw : abject, adjective, projection, subject.
Judex, judicis, a judge : judicial, judgment, judiciary, prejudice.

Jungo, junctus, I join : junction, conjunction, conjoin, adjunct.

Labor, lapsus, I glide : lapse, collapse, relapse, elapse.

Laus, laudis, praise : laud, laudable, laudatory, allow.

Lego, lectus, I gather, read : collect, elect, select, legible, legend.

Lego, legatus, I send : legate, legatee, legacy, delegate, colleague.

Levis, light : levity, alleviate, lever, relieve, leaven, elevate.

Lex, legis, a law : legal, legislate, legitimate, loyalty.

Liber, free : liberal, liberate, liberty, libertine, deliver, livery.

Ligo, I bind : ligament, religion, obligation, liable.

Litera, a letter : literal, literary, literature.

Locus, a place : local, locate, allocate, dislocate, locomotive.

Loquer, locutus, I speak : loquacious, colloquy, elocution.

Ludo, lusum, I play : elude, ludicrous, delusion, interlude.

Lumen, a light : luminous, luminary, illuminate, limn.

Luo, lutus, I wash : lotion, ablution, dilute, pollute.

Lux, lucis, light : lucid, elucidate, pellucid.

Magnus, great : magnate, magnify, magnitude, magnificent.

Malus, bad : malady, malice, maltreat, malaria, malevolence.

Maneo, mansum, I remain : manse, mansion, remain, permanent.

Mare, the sea : marine, mariner, maritime, mermaid, ultramarine.

Mater, a mother : maternal, matricide, matriculate, matron.

Medius, the middle : medium, mediate, immediate, medial, mean.

Memor, mindful : memory, memorable, memoir, commemorate.

Miles, militis, a soldier : military, militate, militia.

Mitto, missus, I send : admit, mission, missile, submission.

Moneo, monitus, I advise : monitor, monument, admonish.

Mons, montis, a mountain : mount, dismount, promontory, ultramontane.

Moveo, motus, I move : motor, motive, mobile, commotion, promote.

Multus, many : multitude, multiply, multiple, multiform.

Munus, muneris, a gift : munificent, municipal, remunerate.

Nascor, natus, I am born : nascent, native, natal, natural, connate.

Navis, a ship : naval, navigate, navy, circumnavigation.

Noceo, I hurt : noxious, innocent, innocuous, obnoxious.

Nomen, a name : nominal, nominate, denomination, cognomen, noun.

Novus, new : novel, novitiate, novelty, innovation, renoyate.

Nox, noctis, night : nocturnal, equinox, equinoctial, nocturne.

Numerus, a number : numeration, enumerate, innumerable, number.

Omnis, all : omnibus, omnipotent, omniscient, omnipresent.

Opus, operis, work : operate, opera, co-operation, inure, manure.

Ordo, ordinis, order : ordinal, ordinary, ordinance, subordinate.

Pando, passus, I spread out : expand, expanse, compass, pace.

Pareo, I appear : appear, appearance, apparition, compare.

Paro, paratus, I prepare : apparatus, comparison, repair, prepare.

Pars, partis, a part : part, particle, partition, partner, parcel.

Pater, a father : paternal, paternity, parricide, patrimony.

Patior, passus, I suffer : passive, passion, impatient, compassion.

Pello, pulsus, I drive : expel, expulsion, repel, repulsive, pulse.

Pendeo, pensum, I hang : pendant, appendix, depend, suspend, suspense.

Pes, pedis, a foot : pedal, pedestrian, biped, quadruped, impede.

Peto, petitus, I seek : petition, petulant, competition, appetite.

Pleo, I fill : complete, complement, replete, supplement.

- Alleo, I fold* : complicate, pliable, multiply, reply, simple.
Pono, positus, I place : position, post, composition, repone, compound.
Porto, I carry : portable, portmanteau, export, imports, deportment.
Possum, I am able ; *potens, able* : possible, impotent, potential.
Prehendo, prehensus, I take : prehensile, comprehend, comprise.
Primus, first : primary, primitive, primrose, prince, premier.
Probo, I try : probe, prove, approval, probable, reprobation.
Puto, putatus, I cut, think : compute, impute, amputate, reputation.
Raplo, rantus, I seize : rapid, rapine, rapture, rapacious, ravage.
Rego, rectus, I rule : regal, royal, regent, regular, rector, correct.
Rideo, risum, I laugh : ridiculous, risible, deride, derision.
Rogo, rogatus, I ask : interrogate, rogatory, derogatory, arrogance.
Rota, a wheel : rotate, rotary, rotund, round, roundelay.
Rumpo, ruptus, I break : rupture, eruption, disruption, corruption.
Sacer, sacred : sacred, sacrifice, sacrament, sacerdotal, sacristan.
Salio, saltum, I leap : salient, assail, assault, salmon, result.
Sanctus, holy : sanctuary, sanctimony, sanctify, saint.
Scando, climb : scan, scale, ascend, descend, ascension.
Scio, I know : science, scientific, conscience, consciousness.
Scribo, scriptus, I write : scribe, scribble, conscript, description.
Seco, I cut : section, bisect, dissect, segment, insect.
Sedeo, sessum, I sit : sediment, subside, dissidence, residence, session.
Sentio, I feel : sense, sentence, sentiment, sensual, sensuous.
Sequor, secutus, I follow : sequel, sequence, consequent, prosecute.
Servio, I serve : servant, serf, service, preserve, servitude.
Signum, a sign : signal, significant, designate, ensign, sign.
Similis, like : similar, dissimilar, similitude, resemblance.
Solvo, solutus, I loose : solution, dissolve, resolve, absolute.
Specio, spectus, I see : spectator, spectre, specimen, inspection.
Spiro, I breathe : aspire, aspirate, conspire, conspiracy, respire.
Sto, statum, I stand : state, station, statue, statute, constitute.
Stringo, strictus, I bind : stringent, astringent, strict, district.
Struo, structus, I build : structure, construction, instruct.
Sumo, sumptus, I take : assume, consumption, resume.
Tango, tactus, I touch : tangent, tangible, contact, contagious.
Tempus, temporis, time : temporal, contemporary, extempore.
Tendo, tensus, I stretch : tend, contend, extend, attention, tense.
Teneo, tentus, I hold : tenant, tenet, tendril, detain, retentive.
Terminus, an end : term, terminate, determination, interminable.
Terra, the earth : terrier, inter, subterranean, terrestrial.
Texo, textus, I weave : text, textile, context, pretext.
Torqueo, tortus, I twist : torture, torsion, torment, contort.
Traho, tractus, I draw : tract, traction, contract, abstract.
Tribuo, I give : tribute, tributary, contribute, distribution.
Trudo, I thrust : abstruse, intrude, protrusion, extrude.
Unus, one : unit, unite, union, uniform, unique, unanimous.
Valeo, I am well : valid, invalid, prevalent, valiant.
Veho, vectus, I convey : vehicle, conveyance, vector, inveigh.
Venlo, I come : venture, convene, advent, prevent, prevent.
Verbum, a word : verb, adverb, proverbial, verbose, verbal.
Verto, versus, I turn : versatile, convert, diversion, verse.

Verus, *true* : very, verify, verity, verdict, aver, veracious.
 Video, visus, *I see* : visit, vision, divide, invidious, revise.
 Vinco, victus, *I conquer* : victor, victorious, convince.
 Vitium, *a fault* : vicious, vitiate, vice, vituperate.
 Vivo, victum, *I live* : vivid, vivacious, viands, revive, survive.
 Voco, vocatus, *I call* : vocal, vocation, vociferous, revoke, vowel.
 Volo, *I wish* : volition, voluntary, benevolent, malevolence.
 Volvo, *I roll* : volume, convolvulus, involve, revolution.
 Voveo, votus, *I vow* : vote, devote, votive, votary, vow.
 Vulgus, *the common people* : vulgar, vulgate, divulge.
 Voro, *I eat* : voracious, graminivorous, omnivorous, devour.

DOUBLETS

Words that have come to us directly from Latin show little change of form except in the termination, but words that have come to us from Latin through French are often greatly changed from their original form. This is well illustrated by a number of words which occur in two forms, one derived directly from Latin, the other derived from Latin through French. Such words are called doublets. The following pairs of words are examples. The first in each case comes directly from Latin. The meaning of the two words is not always exactly the same :

Abbreviate, abridge.
 Benediction, benison.
 Cadence, chance.
 Calix, chalice.
 Canal, channel.
 Capital, chief.
 Captive, caitiff.
 Collect, cull.
 Compute, count.
 Dilate, delay.
 Fabricate, forge.
 Fact, feat.
 Fidelity, fealty.
 Fragile, frail.

Hospital, hotel.
 Invidious, envious.
 Legal, loyal.
 Obedience, obeisance.
 Pauper, poor.
 Penitence, penance.
 Potion, poison.
 Prosecute, pursue.
 Provide, purvey.
 Redemption, ransom.
 Regal, royal.
 Secure, sure.
 Separate, sever.
 Tradition, treason.

GREEK ROOTS

The following is a list of a hundred of the commonest Greek words from which English words are derived :

- Ago, I lead** : pedagogue, synagogue, stratagem.
Agon, a contest : agony, antagonist, protagonist.
Allos, another : allopathy, allegory, allegorical.
Angelos, a messenger : angel, angelic, evangelist.
Anthropos, a man : anthropoid, misanthrope, philanthropist.
Archo, I begin, rule : archaic, monarch, archbishopric.
Aster, astron, a star : asteroid, astronomy, astrology.
Autos, self : autocrat, autograph, autobiography.
Ballo, I throw : diabolic, hyperbole, parable, symbol.
Bapto, I dip : baptise, baptist, anabaptist.
Baros, heavy : barometer, baritone, barytes.
Biblos, a book : Bible, bibliography, bibliomaniac.
Bios, life : biology, biography, amphibious.
Chole, bile : choler, choleric, melancholy.
Chronos, time : chronic, chronicle, chronometer, anachronism.
Daktulos, a finger : dactyl, pterodactyl, date.
Deka, ten : decagon, decade, decalogue, decasyllabic.
Demos, the people : democracy, endemic, epidemic, demagogue.
Dokeo, I think : dogma, dogmatic, orthodox, doxology.
Dunamis, power : dynamics, dynamite, dynasty.
Eidos, form : kaleidoscope, spheroidal, cycloid.
Electron, amber : electric, electroscope, electrotpe, electrify.
Ergon, work : energy, metallurgy, surgeon (chirurgion).
Gamos, marriage : bigamy, monogamy, misogamy, polygamist.
Gaster, the stomach : gastric, gastronomy.
Ge, the earth : geology, geography, geometry, apogee, perigee.
Gennao, I produce : genesis, genealogy, oxygen, homogeneous.
Glossa, the tongue : glossary, glottis, polyglot, gloss.
Gnosis, knowledge : gnostic, agnostic, diagnosis, prognosticate.
Gonia, an angle : diagonal, pentagonal, polygon, hexagon.
Grapho, I write : graphic, biography, telegraph, grammar, telegram.
Haireo, I take away : heretic, heresy, heresiarch.
Hecaton, a hundred : hecatomb, hectometre.
Helios, the sun : helium, heliograph, heliotrope, aphelion.
Heteros, different : heterodox, heterogeneous.
Hieros, sacred : hierarchy, hieroglyphic, hierophant.
Hippos, a horse : hippopotamus, hippodrome.
Hodos, a way : exodus, period, methodical, synod.
Homos, the same : homology, homotype, homogeneous.
Hudor, water : hydraulic, hydroger, hydrophobia.
Idios, one's own : idiot, idiom, idiosyncrasy.
Isos, equal : isobar, isochronous, isotherm, isosceles.

- Kalos, beautiful :** caligraphy, calisthenics, kaleidoscope.
Klino, I lean : clinical, clinometer, climate, climax.
Kosmos, order : cosmical, cosmogony, cosmetic.
Kratos, strength : democrat, autocrat, aristocracy.
Krino, I judge : critic, criterion, hypercritical.
Krupto, I hide : crypt, cryptic, apocryphal, grot, grotto.
Kuklos, a circle : cyclist, bicycle, cycloid, cyclone.
Lego, I say, choose : lexicon, dialect, eclectic.
Lithos, a stone : lithography, aerolite, palaeolithic.
Logos, a word, speech : logic, dialogue, geology, eulogy.
Luo, I loosen : analysis, dialysis, paralysis.
Meter, a mother : metropolis, metropolitan.
Metron, a measure : metre, barometer, diameter, thermometer.
Mikros, little : microscope, micrometer, microcosm.
Monos, alone : monastery, monograph, monosyllable, monarch.
Morphe, shape : morphology, amorphous, metamorphosis.
Nekros, a dead body : necropolis, necromancy.
Nomos, a law : autonomy, astronomy, economy, Deuteronomy.
Ode, a song : ode, prosody, parody, monody.
Onoma, a name : anonymous, patronymic, synonymous, synonym.
Optomal, I see : optics, ophthalmic, synopsis, autopsy.
Orthos, right : orthography, orthodoxy.
Oxus, sharp : oxide, oxidise, oxygen, paroxysm, oxytone.
Pan, all : pantheist, panoply, pantomime, panacea.
Pathos, feeling : pathetic, sympathy, antipathy.
Pente, five : pentagon, pentateuch, Pentecost.
Petra, a rock : petrify, petrel, petroleum, pier, Peter.
Phaomal, I appear : phantom, phantasy, phenomenon, fantastic.
Phemi, I say : blaspheme, euphemism, prophetic, prophecy.
Phero, I bear : metaphor, periphery, phosphorus.
Phileo, I love : philosophy, philology, philharmonic.
Phone, a sound : phonetic, phonograph, euphony, symphony.
Phos, photos, light : phosphorus, photograph, photometer.
Phusis, nature : physics, physician, physiology, metaphysics.
Phrasis, a speech : paraphrase, periphrasis, phraseology.
Poleo, I make : poet, poem, poesy, posy.
Polis, a city : police, policy, politic, metropolis, cosmopolitan.
Polus, many : polygamy, polytheist, polygon, Polynesia.
Pous, podos, a foot : antipodes, polypus, tripod.
Protos, first : protoplasm, proteid, prototype.
Psuche, the mind, soul : psychic, psychology, psychological.
Rheo, I flow : rheumatic, catarrh, rhythm.
Skopeo, I see : microscope, telescope, episcopal, bishop.
Sophia, wisdom : sophist, philosopher, sophism.
Stello, I send : apostle, epistle, apostolic, epistolary.
Stratos, an army : stratagem, strategic, strategy.
Strepho, I turn : apostrophe, strophe, catastrophe.
Techne, an art : technical, technology, pyrotechnics.
Tele, afar : telegraph, telegram, telephone, telephotograph.
Temno, I cut : anatomy, epitome, atom, tome, lithotomy.

Theaomal, I see : theatre, theory, theorem, amphitheatre.
Theos, a god : theism, theology, enthusiast, apotheosis.
Thermos, warm : thermal, thermometer, isothermal.
Thesis, a placing : antithesis, epithet, hypothesis, synthesis.
Treis, three : triangle, tripod, trigonometry, trinity.
Trepo, I turn : tropic, trophy, trope, heliotrope.
Tupos, impression : type, typical, antitype, electrotrope.
Zoon, an animal : zoology, zoophyte, zodiac.

APPENDIX

THE PLURAL OF FOREIGN NOUNS

Many foreign nouns which have been adopted into English without change of form retain their foreign plurals. The following are the most common. The words are of Latin origin except where another language is indicated.

a, ae : formula, formulæ ; larvae, larvæ ; nebula, nebulae.
um, a : addendum, addenda ; agendum, agenda ; arcanum, arcana ; *and similarly* : datum, desideratum, dictum, erratum, gymnasium, medium, spectrum, stratum.
us, i : alumnus, alumni ; focus, foci ; fungus, fungi ; *and similarly* : genius, locus, magus, nucleus, polypus, radius, sarcophagus, stimulus, terminus, tumulus.
es, es : series, series ; species, species.
is, es (L. and Gr.) : amanuensis, amanuenses ; antithesis, antitheses ; axis, axes ; *and similarly* : crisis, metamorphosis, oasis, thesis.
is, ides (Gr.) : aphid, aphides ; chrysalis, chrysalides ; ephemeris, ephemerides.
ex, ices : apex, apices ; index, indices ; vertex, vertices ; vortex, vortices.
ix, ices : appendix, appendices ; calix, calices ; radix, radices.
us, era : genus, genera.
on, a (Gr.) : criterion, criteria ; automaton, automata ; *and similarly* : ephemeron, phenomenon.
eau, eaux (Fr.) : beau, beaux ; flambeau, flambeaux ; plateau, plateaux.
o, e, i (It.) : dilettante, dilettanti ; virtuoso, virtuosi ; bandit, banditti.
—, im (Heb.) : cherub, cherubim ; seraph, seraphim.
irregular (Fr.) : madame, mesdames ; monsieur, messieurs.

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